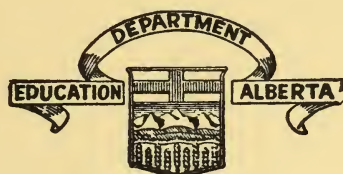


No. 29

September, 1952

Price 10¢



Classroom Bulletin

on

Social Studies



Printed by A. Shnitka, Queen's Printer for Alberta
1952

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INTRODUCTION

Bulletin 2, Program of Studies for the Senior High School (revised, 1952), contains the outline for Social Studies 3 for this school year. The outline indicates that the period covered is from the end of World War I up to the present time. Since the reference books do not cover the period from 1945 to the present, this classroom Bulletin has been prepared to assist the teachers of classes in Social Studies 3 in their selection of topics in recent and current history. Since, at the beginning of each recent school year, a Classroom Bulletin of the type of this present issue has been published, this Bulletin includes outline material very similar to that of No. 27, September, 1951. Additions have been made to each section in the first part and new material of current interest has been included in this Bulletin.

NOTE:

Classroom Bulletin on Social Studies No. 28, March, 1952, contains sections on The North Atlantic Treaty, The United Nations, Responsible Government and Immigration. Copies of Bulletin No. 28 will be found in many schools. If additional copies are required they may be obtained from the Department of Education at 10 cents each.

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A classroom bulletin for teachers and students prepared and issued by the Department of Education. Copies of this bulletin may be obtained from the General Office, Department of Education, Edmonton, at 10 cents per copy.

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PROMINENT POLITICAL LEADERS IN CANADA

Federal Cabinet Ministers

Rt. Hon. L. St. Laurent, Q.C.....	Prime Minister and President of the Privy Council.
Rt. Hon. C. D. Howe.....	Minister of Trade and Commerce.
Rt. Hon. J. C. Gardiner.....	Minister of Agriculture.
Hon. Milton F. Gregg, V.C.....	Minister of Labor.
Hon. Alphonse Fournier, Q.C.....	Minister of Public Works.
Hon. Brooke Claxton, Q.C.....	Minister of National Defence.
Hon. Paul Martin, Q.C.....	Minister of Health and Welfare.
Hon. Douglas Abbott.....	Minister of Finance and Receiver-General.
Hon. J. J. McCann, M.D.....	Minister of National Revenue.
Hon. George Prudham.....	Minister of Mines and Technical Surveys.
Hon. F. G. Bradley.....	Secretary of State.
Hon. Lionel Chevrier.....	Minister of Transport.
Hon. Stuart S. Garson.....	Minister of Justice and Attorney-General.
Hon. Hugues Lapointe.....	Minister of Veterans Affairs.
Hon. R. W. Mayhew.....	Minister of Fisheries.
Hon. Alcide Côté.....	Postmaster-General.
Hon. R. H. Winters.....	Minister of Resources and Development.
Hon. Walter Harris.....	Minister of Citizenship and Immigration.
Hon. L. B. Pearson.....	Secretary of State for External Affairs.

Leaders of Political Parties in the House of Commons

Hon. George Drew.....	Progressive Conservative Leader; Leader of Her Majesty's Opposition.
Hon. Solon E. Low.....	Social Credit Leader.
Hon. M. J. Coldwell.....	Canadian Co-operative Commonwealth Leader.

**MEMBERS OF THE LEGISLATIVE ASSEMBLY—PROVINCE OF ALBERTA,
SEPTEMBER, 1952**

Constituency	Name
Acadia-Coronation	Gerhart, C. E..
Alexandra	Aalborg, A. O.
Athabasca	Aloisio, Antonio
Banff-Cochrane	Leavitt, Lee
Bonnyville	Joly, Laudas
Bow Valley-Empress	Cain, W. E.
Bruce	Hardy, Earl M.
Calgary	Brecken, Paul
	Colborne, F. C.
	Dixon, A. J.
	Macdonald, H. B.
	MacDonald, H. J.
	Wilkinson, Mrs. Rose
Camrose	Sayers, Chester I.
Cardston	Hinman, E. W.
Clover Bar	Baker, F. M.
Cypress	Underdahl, James
Didsbury	Hammell, H. G.
Drumheller	Taylor, Gordon
Edmonton	Gerhart, Edgar
	Manning, E. C.
	Page, J. Percy
	Prowse, J. Harper
	Roper, Elmer E.
	Ross, Dr. J. D.
	Tanner, Harold E.
Edson	Willmore, N. A.
Gleichen	Bell, G. E.
Grande Prairie	McLaughlin, Ira
Grouard	Defosses, J. R.
Hand Hills	Cross, Dr. W. W.
Lacombe	Patrick, A. R.
Lac La Biche	Lobay, Harry
Lac Ste. Anne	Montemurro, A. M.
Leduc	Ansley, E. R.
Lethbridge	Landeryou, J. C.
Little Bow	Dawson, Peter
Macleod	Hartley, James
Medicine Hat	Robinson, Dr. J. L.
Okotoks-High River	Casey, Ivan
Olds	Niddrie, F. J.
Peace River	Gilliland, W. F.
Pembina	Jorgenson, R. D.
Pincher Creek-Crow's Nest	Kovach, Wm.
Ponoka	Johnston, G. F.
Red Deer	Ure, D. A.
Redwater	Chaba, Peter

Rocky Mountain House	Hooke, A. J.
Sedgewick	Hillman, J. C.
Spirit River	Fimrite, A.
St. Albert	Maynard, Lucien
Stettler	Clark, J. E.
Stony Plain	Wood, Mrs. C. R.
St. Paul	Reierson, Raymond
Taber	Lee, Roy
Vegreville	Ponich, Michael
Vermilion	Cornish, W. R.
Wainwright	Masson, Wm.
Warner	Halmrast, L. C.
Wetaskiwin	Wingblade, J. A.
Willingdon	Dushenski, N. W.

CABINET MINISTERS

Manning, Hon. E. C.	Premier, Provincial Treasurer, and Minister of Mines and Minerals.
Cross, Hon. W. W.	Minister of Health and Public Welfare.
Maynard, Hon. Lucien	Attorney General.
Casey, Hon. Ivan	Minister of Lands and Forests.
Hooke, Hon. A. J.	Minister of Economic Affairs and Minister of Public Works.
Gerhart, Hon. C. E.	Minister of Municipal Affairs and Provincial Secretary.
Aalborg, Hon. A. O.	Minister of Education.
Robinson, Hon. J. L.	Minister of Industries and Labor.
Ure, Hon. D. A.	Minister of Agriculture.
Taylor, Hon. G. E.	Minister of Railways and Telephones and Minister of Highways.

The Clerk of the Legislative Assembly is R. A. Andison.

Provincial Premiers and Governments

Prince Edward Island:

J. Walter Jones—Liberal Government—elected 1951.

Nova Scotia:

Angus L. MacDonald—Liberal Government—elected 1949.

New Brunswick:

J. B. McNair—Liberal Government—elected 1948.
(An election will be held on September 22).

Quebec:

Maurice L. Duplessis—Union Nationale Government—elected 1952.

Ontario:

L. M. Frost—Progressive Conservative Government—elected 1951.

Manitoba:

D. L. Campbell—Coalition Government (Liberal-Progressives, Progressive Conservatives, Independent)—elected 1949.

Saskatchewan:

T. C. Douglas—Co-operative Commonwealth Federation Government—elected 1952.

Alberta:

Ernest C. Manning—Social Credit Government—elected 1952.

British Columbia:

W. A. C. Bennett—Social Credit Government—elected 1952.

Newfoundland:

Joseph R. Smallwood—Liberal Government—elected 1951.

PROMINENT POLITICAL LEADERS IN OTHER COUNTRIES

United Kingdom:

Prime Minister.....Winston Churchill
Foreign MinisterAnthony Eden
Chancellor of the ExchequerRichard A. Butler

U.S.A.:

PresidentHarry S. Truman
Secretary of StateDean Acheson

U.S.S.R.:

PresidentJoseph Stalin
Foreign MinisterA. Y. Vishinsky

France:

PresidentVincent Auriol
PremierAntoine Pinay
Foreign MinisterRobert Schuman

Australia:

PremierR. G. Menzies
External Affairs MinisterRichard Casey

China (Communist Government):

Leader of the Chinese
Communist PartyMao-Tse-tung
Premier and Foreign MinisterChou-En-lai

Eire:
 PremierEamon de Valera

India:
 PresidentDr. Rajendra Prasad
 PremierJawaharlal Nehru

Italy:
 Premier and Foreign MinisterAlcide de Gasperi

Japan:
 PremierShigeru Yoshida

New Zealand:
 PremierS. G. Holland
 External Affairs MinisterT. C. Webb

Pakistan:
 Prime MinisterKhwaja Nazimuddin

Union of South Africa:
 Premier and Foreign MinisterDaniel F. Malan

United States of Indonesia:
 PresidentDr. Soekarno
 Prime MinisterDr. Sukiman Wirjosandjojo

Western Germany:
Federal Republic
 PresidentTheodor Heuss
 ChancellorDr. Konrad Adenauer

Yugoslavia:
 PremierMarshal Tito

THE 60 MEMBER NATIONS OF THE U.N.

The Big Five

United Kingdom; U.S.A.; U.S.S.R.; France; China.

Afghanistan	El Salvador	Nicaragua
Argentina	Ethiopia	Norway
Australia	Greece	Pakistan
Belgium	Guatemala	Panama
Bolivia	Haiti	Paraguay
Brazil	Honduras	Peru
Burma	Iceland	Philippines
Byelorussia S.S.R.	India	Poland
Canada	Indonesia	Saudi Arabia
Chile	Iran	Sweden
Colombia	Iraq	Syria
Costa Rica	Israel	Thailand
Cuba	Lebanon	Turkey
Czechoslovakia	Liberia	Ukrainian S.S.R.
Denmark	Luxembourg	Union of South Africa
Dominican Republic	Mexico	Uruguay
Ecuador	Netherlands	Venezuela
Egypt	New Zealand	Yemen
		Yugoslavia

SOCIAL STUDIES 3—CURRENT HISTORY SINCE THE CLOSE OF WORLD WAR II

The course in Social Studies 3 includes a study of the principal events since 1945. The revised edition of Program for the Senior High School, Bulletin 2, Prescribed Courses in Social Studies 2 and 3, provides the authorized outline for this course. Copies of this new issue of Bulletin 2 (September, 1952) should be in the hands of all teachers of Social Studies 2 and 3, and should be available to their classes. Historical developments since 1945 are outlined in the Social Studies 3 section of Bulletin 2, under the following headings:

Supplement, Following Part III

Historical Developments since 1945.

- A. Establishing a permanent international organization to maintain peace.
- B. The Soviet Union and Russian satellite countries.
- C. The Western Democracies.
- D. The Far East.

AN OUTLINE FOR CURRENT EVENTS STUDY FOR 1952 - 1953

Social Studies 1, 2, and 3.

Continuing with a practice which has been followed for the past several years, this first issue in the school year presents a suggested outline of significant current movements and problems around which important current events during the year will in all probability center. Those who made use of the Bulletin outline last year either by following closely the items listed or by using it as a guide in making up their own outline may welcome assistance this year.

The following objectives of current events study should be kept in mind during the school year:

- (1) To supply vital information.
- (2) To develop an intelligent outlook on daily events at home and abroad as they affect us as Canadian citizens.
- (3) To give meaning to our concept of citizenship.
- (4) To understand the purpose and to kindle a critical appreciation of our governments.
- (5) To learn how foreign relations are conducted.
- (6) To appreciate Canada's position amongst the nations of the world.
- (7) To discriminate between reliable and unreliable sources of information.
- (8) To acquire high ideals respecting human conduct and to support high-principled efforts wherever they are found.

The Outline:

1. National

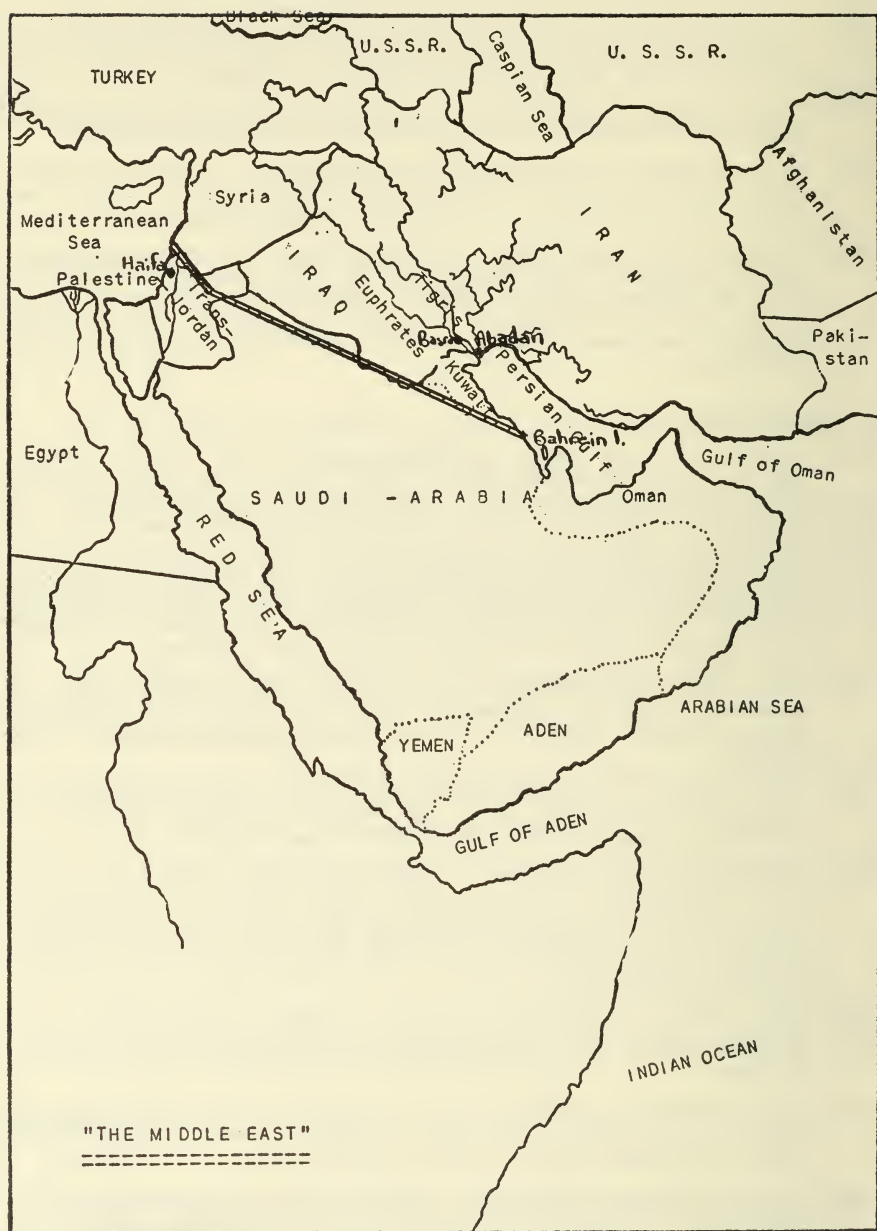
- (1) Federal and Provincial Affairs: Recent federal and provincial conferences on constitutional matters; important political developments at Ottawa and the provincial capitals; significant dominion-provincial problems.
- (2) Canadian Participation in the Korean War and Preparation for a Possible World War: The sending of Canadian armed forces to Korea; Canada's part in the efforts to end hostilities; the efforts to bolster

our system of national defence; the civil defence program; the economic controls applied to conserve our supplies of strategic materials; the measures adopted to control inflation; our co-operation in defence problems with other countries, e.g., the United States.

- (3) The Cost-of-living Index: The general trend of commodity prices; the effect of the rising cost of living upon the demands of wage earners; the policy of the government concerning this situation.
- (4) Federal and Provincial Social Legislation; New legislation and amendments to old legislation dealing with social and economic security.
- (5) Labor Problems in Canada: New labor legislation; new labor demands; labor disputes and their settlement; the balance between demand and supply in our labor forces; immigration; unemployment.
- (6) Canada's Economic Problem and Development: Our export and import trade; special problems arising from the U.S. dollar shortage and the solutions attempted; the freight-rates question; the importance of Alberta's oil; the proposals for the export of natural gas; the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Waterway and Power Project; farm prices; new industries.

I. International

- (1) Canadian Foreign Policy: Canada's part in world affairs; political and economic agreements with foreign powers; the North Atlantic Pact; Canadian representation abroad; our immigration policy; our relations with the UN; our relations with the United States.
- (2) The United Nations: The efforts of the UN to maintain world peace and a better understanding between nations; the Korean conflict; the special tasks of such agencies as UNESCO, FAO, ICAO, WHO; new members; the Atomic Energy Commission; the important decisions of the Security Council; the work of the General Assembly.
- (3) The British Commonwealth and Empire: The changing status of countries within the Empire; the effect of Commonwealth membership on Canada's foreign policy; the Commonwealth and the Korean conflict.
- (4) The Future of Germany, Austria, and Japan: The rehabilitation of Germany, Austria, and Japan; the lack of agreement amongst the occupying powers on peace treaties for these countries.
- (5) The Role of the United States in World Affairs: The general policy of the President in domestic and foreign affairs; internal disputes over American policy abroad; the United States and the Korean conflict; the achievements of the ERP and other American measures of assistance to foreign countries for the purposes of defence and economic rehabilitation.
- (6) China: The new Communist regime; the Chinese intervention in the Korean conflict; the expanding influence of the Chinese Communists in Asia.
- (7) Great Britain: The British recovery program; the measures adopted by the Labor government; the dollar shortage problem; Great Britain's stand in the split between the East and the West.
- (8) The Soviet Union: The strained relations with the western democracies; the Soviet attempts to dominate Europe and Asia; Russian policy in UN affairs.
- (9) Important Scientific Developments: Discoveries in the uses of atomic energy; developments in military aviation; new forms of projectiles and explosives; medical discoveries.



THE SELECTION OF CURRENT EVENTS FOR STUDY

In the teaching of current events in the schools, the teacher faces the problem of selecting suitable topics from the great mass of available materials. Many of these record the trivial and confusing as well as the significant and illuminating. Some criteria then must be set up to provide a basis for selection. Although there is no ready and clear-cut way of establishing these criteria for the choice of current events topics, it must be admitted that re-examination of the basic principles of selection used in the construction of the curriculum will aid the teacher considerably. Mere existence is not a basis for the admission of subject matter to the curriculum. Any material admitted must prove its fitness; for example, only those historical events which seem to be useful are admitted. It follows, that news items must not be admitted merely because they are available. **We, therefore, may establish one criterion for the selection of current events by suggesting that those current events which are related to the existing curriculum are worthy of attention.**

We should also suggest that in selecting current events for attention the teacher should watch for the significance of situations and conditions as well as of overt events. The situation that results in a strike, a revolution, a disaster, a government decree, easily may be more significant than the resulting event itself. It is these background situations which often furnish the most illuminating kind of material for the lesson in current events.

AREAS OF TENSION IN THE MIDDLE EAST AND IN THE FAR EAST

Before studying the Asiatic "hot spots" alluded to in our title, we shall define first the geographical meaning of the terms "Middle East" and "Far East" which are familiar to even the most casual reader of the newspapers. Actually, the geographers themselves are not always in very close agreement as to the geographical limits implied by these terms. British geographers, for example, quite frequently use the term "Near East" to refer to the Balkans, Turkey, Egypt, Syria, Israel, and Trans-jordan. In North America, however, all these areas, with the exception of the Balkans, are referred to as the "Middle East" along with Iraq, Iran, Saudi Arabia, and Afghanistan. The term "Far East", meanwhile, is used in North American newspapers and magazines to refer to those Asiatic areas from Pakistan to Japan, namely, Pakistan, India, Burma, Thailand, Malaya, Indonesia, the Philippines, Indo-China, China, Korea, and Japan.

Because the boundaries of the three areas are variously defined by different writers, the National Geographic Society of the United States recently gave its own definitions of the ambiguous terms. It attempted to give exact boundaries to each of the areas. They are as follows:

Near East—Turkey, Cyprus, Syria, Lebanon, Israel, Jordan, Egypt, Iraq, Iran and the countries of the Arabian peninsula.

Middle East—India, Pakistan, Afghanistan, Nepal, Bhutan, and Ceylon.

Far East—China, Mongolian Republic, Korea, Japan, the Philippines, Indo-China, Thailand, Burma, Malaya and Indonesia.

It should be noted that the endeavor of the National Geographic Society to give each of the three terms in question a more definite meaning is a very recent one. There is still no general agreement about them. The subject headings which follow are based on North American practice.

The Middle East—An International Crossroads where Europe, Asia and Africa Meet

The region of which the Suez Canal is the center has been the meeting place of nations and races for many centuries. It would, indeed, be hard to name a part of the world which has played a more important part in world relations in the past and still continues to do so. Humanity, always on the move, passed through this region on its way between Europe and Asia, between Africa and

Asia, between Africa and Europe. Water routes led to Suez and the Dardanelles. Caravans came from central and southern Asia to Baghdad and on to the eastern shores of the Mediterranean and from there goods were taken by ship to the ports of both southern and western Europe. In these lands are evidences of the earliest civilizations, namely, the great kingdoms and empires of Babylon, Assyria, Chaldea, Phoenicia, and Egypt. The valleys of the Nile and the Tigris and Euphrates were able to support large populations and, because of their central locations, to play a large part in the affairs of the known world at that time.

Later when water routes began to compete with caravans, when the centers of trade moved westward from the Mediterranean Sea, when goods began to be shipped around the Cape of Good Hope, the commercial life of the Middle East gradually declined. No longer was this region the great center for the exchange of ideas. But this loss was only temporary. Centuries later a new world outlook was destined to make the Middle East once again a center of interest for the Great Powers.

When the nations of Western Europe colonized southern Asia and the East Indies and developed the resources of those regions, trade routes once more passed close to the Middle East. The opening of the Suez Canal turned the sea-borne traffic from the Cape of Good Hope to the Red Sea and the Mediterranean. Before World War I Germany, who was seeking to enlarge her empire, planned and nearly completed a railroad from Berlin to Baghdad. Such a railroad would have been a distinct challenge to Great Britain and her trade with India. It would also have made accessible to Germany the resources of Iraq (then known as Mesopotamia) and the surrounding countries. With the discovery of oil in Iraq and Iran (then known as Persia) the interest of western Europe and of the United States increased. Rights to the oil fields of the Middle East were mainly divided among Great Britain, France, and the United States. Meanwhile, Russia sought passage through Iran to the Persian Gulf so that she might secure an ice-free seaport, but Great Britain stood in the way.

The Oil of The Middle East—A Cause of World Tension

It is the discovery of oil in the Middle East, referred to above, which has made that area a pawn in the game of international politics and finance. This area, where vast and rich fields hold an estimated forty-five percent of the world's proved oil reserves, is now the most critical oil area in the world. Against the grim background of such present day world events as the recent nationalization of Iran's oil resources, oil is becoming an increasingly important, if not decisive, factor in the security of the western world. An idea of the tremendous contribution to victory made by oil in World War II can be gained from the following facts.

1. The Allied forces, excluding those of Russia, used 22,000,000,000 gallons of oil products in conquering Germany, not including products used to transport men and materials to the scene of action.
2. The United States Fifth Fleet burned 630,000,000 gallons of fuel oil in seven weeks during June and July, 1944.
3. During the bombing of Germany, the United States Ninth Air Force used an average of 634,000 gallons of 100 octane gasoline each day.
4. An armored battalion required 17,000 gallons of gasoline to move 100 miles, even under ideal conditions.

The importance of oil to the western world, however, is not solely military. Oil has made modern transportation possible. Automobiles, airplanes, trucks, tractors, and other vehicles are powered by petroleum. Ocean-going ships are almost entirely oil burning. An oil driven ship can travel three times as far without refuelling as a similar ship using coal. Railroads are turning more and more to the use of diesel locomotives which use oil fuel. Trains pulled by such locomotives can be run at a lower cost per mile than trains pulled by steam locomotives. Motor-powered farm tools have multiplied by many times man's ability to grow food. Today a farmer with power driven equipment can produce an acre of wheat with one thirtieth of the man-hours expended by a farmer of

one hundred years ago using hand tools. Oil fuels are widely employed in stationary power installations. They provide the energy to run the machines in many factories. Heavy fuel oil, burned under the boilers of central generating stations, produces steam to turn the giant generators. Oil also furnishes heat for houses, apartments, and office buildings. The first domestic oil burner with thermostatic control was put on the market in 1918; in the United States today about 3,500,000 homes are centrally heated by oil. Finally, modern industry, like modern transportation, depends on machines, and wherever there is machinery, there is need for lubricants. Today there are hundreds of petroleum lubricants, each of them planned to fit a special need.

It is believed by petroleum geologists that more oil will be produced eventually in the Middle East than anywhere else in the world. Even without thorough exploration, such areas as Iran, Iraq, Saudi Arabia, and Kuwait have, in the opinion of some authorities, proven reserves of some 75 billion barrels and these are being added to rapidly. Estimates of ultimate resources run up to 200 billion barrels. Yet it is only within recent years that any attempt has been made to develop on a large scale the oil resources of the Middle East. It is interesting to think that, although civilization first arose in this part of the earth, its great oil wealth lay almost entirely undeveloped and useless until long after oil-drilling and other methods of the oil industry were developed in North and South America. For centuries, empires rose and fell in the biblical lands of the Middle East, conquerors marched and counter-marched, and nomads tended their flocks, but neither king nor poorest tribesman knew that beneath his feet lay the energy locked in vast amounts of oil.

At the beginning of the twentieth century the growing need for oil and an increasing knowledge of how to find it combined to bring these long-buried Middle Eastern energy resources into use. Commercial production from oil deposits began in Iran in 1908, in Iraq during 1934, and in Saudi Arabia in 1940. Within just a few decades, this area has shown itself to be perhaps the earth's greatest storehouse of petroleum. Oil authorities predict that the Eastern Hemisphere, and particularly Europe, will soon draw most of its oil supplies from the Middle East, with the Western Hemisphere requiring practically all its own oil resources to supply its own needs. It thus becomes obvious why the government of the Soviet Union seeks to gain control of the oil wells of the Middle East and drive out the influence of the western world in these Asiatic oil fields.

The Dangerous Situation in Iran

The first phase of this plan to wrest control of the oil fields of the Middle East from the Western Powers seems to center on the Iranian oil wells. The first step was the nationalization of the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company in the spring of 1951. Before proceeding further with the possible repercussions of this new situation in Iran, we shall note briefly the interest of the British Government in Iranian oil.

At the turn of the century an Englishman, named William K. D'Arcy, who had made a fortune in Australia, became convinced there was oil in the barren hills and plains of Iran. In 1901 he obtained a fifty year concession and formed the company which developed into the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company. It was not until 1908, when D'Arcy had nearly run out of money that his company brought in the first gusher in the now great oil field of Masjid-i-Sulaiman. The Anglo-Iranian field headquarters, it is interesting to note, are still there. In 1914 Winston Churchill, as First Lord of the British Admiralty, acquired for \$10,000,000 a better-than-fifty-per-cent interest for the British Government in the Anglo-Iranian enterprise. The company's value was variously estimated at \$600,000,000 to \$1,000,000,000 at the time of nationalization.

When the nationalization bill was passed by the Iranian Majlis or legislature, the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company held a 23¾ per cent share in the Iraq Petroleum Company and a 50 per cent share in the Kuwait Oil Company located below Iraq on the Persian Gulf. In 1932 the Iranians tried to cancel the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company's concession, because they felt they were not receiving big

enough royalties. In 1933 Iran gave the oil company a sixty year concession, under which Iran received a greatly increased and regular share of the profits. This share was further increased by a 1949 supplementary agreement which Iran has refused to ratify, although she took the first instalment of the \$80,000,000 to have been paid in 1951 under this new arrangement. It would seem that the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company has treated Iran fairly in financial matters. It is also of some significance in this connection to note that of its 61,740 employees at the time of nationalization, only 2,725 were British.

There seems to be little doubt that the agents of the Soviet Union in Iran have been the main instigators of the confiscation of the extensive British oil holdings of that state. Nowhere else in the world could a party declared illegal by the government in power constitute such a serious threat as does that of the Iranian Communists, known as the Tudeh party. The entire financing of the latter, estimated at the locally enormous sum of 2,000,000 tomans a month, is openly derived from Soviet sources. Much of the flood of Tudeh propaganda pamphlets is printed by a press in the Soviet embassy at Teheran. When the nature of Soviet intentions in Iran was disclosed as bluntly as possible during the Azerbaijan crisis in 1946, the Tudeh party was declared illegal by the Iranian government. Since then, however, the party has continued to function under such "fronts" as "The Partisans of Peace" and "The League to Combat the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company." In addition, the Tudehists have penetrated completely what passes for a labor movement in Iran. They have made such headway among younger Iranian men that fifty per cent of the university students and recent graduates are estimated to be Communists or fellow travelers. These successes were aided by a shrewd change in the whole attitude of the Russian government towards Iran. The loud, menacing tone which characterized Soviet negotiations in 1946 over the Azerbaijan affair was changed for a smooth amiability which caused the Iranian government leaders to forget the danger in the north and thus to fall out more readily among themselves. This situation, in addition to the general inefficiency of the Iranian government, has enabled the Tudeh party to emerge as the only truly organized and powerful national group in Iran.

The actual nationalization of the oil wells was, of course, not introduced to the Iranian legislature by the Tudeh party. That work was done by a band of politicians of the National Front, led by Dr. Mossadegh, and their fanatical religious allies, the Fedayan Islam of the Mullah Kashani, one of whose followers murdered the former Premier of Iran who was opposed to any nationalization of the oil wells. The official political scene is dominated by the National Front, but the Tudeh party's various organizations not only stand ready to support the National Front in its efforts to drive out British and American influence in Iran, but they are ready to inherit the benefits of such efforts. There can be little doubt that real pressure will be placed on the Iranian Government to divert much oil to the Soviet Union.

In its attempt to wrest control of the oil industry from Britain the Iranian Government has met with considerable success. The British Government decided in October, 1951, to remove the oil men. It referred the oil dispute to the International Court of Justice, but Iran refused to recognize the jurisdiction of that court in the oil issue. Britain then brought the matter before the United Nations Security Council. The Council voted not to take any action until the International Court decided upon its right to hand down a judgment in the case. In December, 1951, the Court announced that Iran had decided to defend its action before the international tribunal after all. The hearings ended on June 23, 1952, and in July a decision was handed down, sustaining Premier Mossadegh's insistence that the World Court is not competent to deal with the oil case.

Russian Oil Production

The question may be asked at this juncture whether the Soviet Union and her satellites do not produce considerable oil supplies. The exact status of Russian oil resources and operations, of course, is subject to heavy censorship. However, certain information on Soviet oil, believed to be fairly accurate, has been gleaned from behind the iron curtain that conceals the facts concerning

Russia's industrial development. A recent report places the ultimate Russian reserves of crude oil as high as 100,000,000,000 barrels. This estimate takes into account mostly unproved reserves. Russia's proved reserve is believed to be 5,500,000,000 barrels, about six per cent of the world total, according to surveys published in oil-trade publications.

Inefficient operating techniques have curtailed seriously the effective utilization of Russia's vast oil resources. Yearly production is said to be 270,000,000 barrels, more than 1,500,000,000 barrels less than the annual production of the United States. From 1942 to 1946 only about 2,500 oil wells were completed in Russia. This total merely equalled the number of wells exhausted during that period. The Fourth Five Year plan called for 5,500 new wells to be completed from 1946 to 1950. These drilling figures reveal the comparative ability to produce of Russian and American oil industries. In 1950 alone the United States drilled approximately 43,000 wells. On this basis, it took American oilmen only six days to complete as many wells as the Russians planned to drill in each of the last five years. Volatility and octane-rating standards have been increased in recent years, but the quality of Russian-refined oil products remains low. Inferior quality of fuels remains a major economic and military problem for Russia.

A significant geographical shift in Soviet oil production since 1937 is noticeable. In 1937 ninety per cent of Russian oil production centred in the Caucasus, and slightly more than five per cent was derived from central Asia. In 1950 forty-four per cent of the total oil production was from the eastern regions, notably central Asia and the Volga basin.

Russia's European satellite countries in 1950 produced about 48,000,000 barrels of oil. In an effort to realize greater production, Russia and her satellites have resorted to making liquid fuels from coal and shale. This production is estimated at 100,000 barrels daily.

In brief, then, we may conclude that the Soviet Union is not much better prepared to produce fuel for a major war than during World War II when she fell far short of providing badly needed supplies. The Soviet war machine, in the event of another world war, simply could not be driven at full efficiency for any length of time if it were dependent solely on Russian oil production. It is only natural under these circumstances that the small group of men who dictate the lives of the Russian people, look covetously at the tremendous oil resources of the Middle East which are geographically close to the Soviet Union.

Communist Activities in Other Parts of the Middle East

Communist promotion of the idea of nationalization of oil wells has not been confined to Iran, although it has been, initially, most successful there. Soviet influence, coupled with the work of extreme nationalist groups, can be seen also in similar moves in Iraq and Saudi Arabia, and in the Egyptian demands for nationalization of the Suez Canal. So far the Communists have failed in Iraq where the Iraq Petroleum Company promptly increased its royalties to the government. They have failed also in Saudi Arabia.

Nationalization is also being tried in the Far East. In October Burma announced that the government would take over the oil industry in that country. It intends to carry out the process of nationalization in slow stages, and by purchase rather than by seizure. The Burmese government began by buying five per cent of the stock in the Burma Oil Company which, incidentally, owns stock in the Anglo-Iranian Oil Company.

The Dead Sea—A "Hot Spot" Between Israel and the Arab Countries

Coupled with the Middle Eastern difficulties already outlined, there still remains the boundary problem between the new Jewish state of Israel and the Arab state of Trans-jordan. This boundary dispute centers particularly around the rich Dead Sea area which Israel was not able to secure in its entirety under the recommendations of Count Bernadotte for fixing the boundary lines of the

new Jewish state. There is a real danger that the Israeli government may launch a new war to seize the entire Dead Sea region in order to secure complete control of the rich chemical deposits of the Dead Sea and various other resources which they failed to take from the Arabs during previous hostilities. It is interesting to note what a rich prize the chemical deposits of the Red Sea would be. The latest edition of the Encyclopedia Americana says they are "estimated to have a commercial value of 1,200 billion dollars."

It will readily be seen that the field of Jewish-Arab enmity provides another rich field for the disruptive tactics of the agents of international communism. Renewed war between Israel and the Arab countries, combined with troubles over the control of Middle Eastern oil wells, would simplify matters from Russia's point of view in her efforts to extend Communist influence over this unhappy region. The British answer to the threat of renewed war between Jew and Arab, it should be noted, has been the creation in the Middle East of a big Syrian state comprising Syria and Trans-jordan, with the backing of Iraq. Syria, however, has not been very friendly to this proposal.

Evidence of the uneasiness in the Arab World was given by the assassination of King Abdullah of Trans-jordan in the summer of 1951. He was succeeded by his son, Prince Tallal, who, it is believed, is not so well disposed towards Britain as his father was. King Tallal's position is not stable. His brother, Prince Naif, who is living in Beirut, has designs on his throne. Iraq has designs on his kingdom. Early this summer the King was advised by Premier Abdul Huda to go back to Europe for more medical treatments. A three-man regency was established by Abdul Huda to rule Trans-jordan in the absence of the King. Some observers believe that King Tallal was purposely sent away to remove him from immediate contact with events in the country.

The Suez Canal Zone—Another "Hot Spot"

The recent Egyptian disturbances grew out of Egypt's attempt to wrest control of the Suez Canal zone from Britain. In 1936 the two countries made a treaty which gave Britain the right to keep troops near the Canal for a period of twenty years. Britain also made a treaty with Egypt about the Sudan in 1899, by which the Sudan was put under joint administration of Britain and Egypt. In the fall of 1951 Egypt announced that it had cancelled both treaties and demanded that Britain remove its troops from the Suez Canal region. Britain refused to give way under Egyptian threats and skirmishes resulted.

The disturbances in Egypt were climaxed by a battle in Ismailia between British and Egyptian troops on January 25, and by the terror in Cairo on the following day. King Farouk, displeased that the government could not keep order, dismissed Premier Mustafa Nahas Pasha. The strong Wafd Party, of which Nahas Pasha is leader, was suspended in March. Egypt chose to negotiate a settlement in the Suez and Sudanese issues. Elections called for March 18 were cancelled to give the government more freedom to negotiate. Several cabinet changes have taken place in Egypt. On June 30 Hussein Sirry Pasha replaced Naguib Hilaly Pasha as premier. The outgoing premier declared that he was "exhausted by the squabbles and dispirited because a settlement of the Anglo-Egyptian dispute is nowhere in sight."

Three reasons have been suggested for Egypt's hostile behavior to Britain:

1. People in parts of the Near, Middle and Far East are excited over the idea of independence. Many of them have been under the control of European powers; ideas of strong, independent nations of their own appeal to them.
2. People who have been under the control of other powers in any form have a disdain and fear for all things strange and foreign. The Chinese tried to drive out the foreigners in the Boxer Rebellion in 1900. Iran endeavored to drive out the British; Egypt tried to follow the same idea.
3. There is domestic unrest in Egypt because many people live in poverty.

There is ill feeling against the ruling few. Agitation against Britain serves to distract the minds of the Egyptians from their troubles at home.

In the latter part of July, 1952, the army, led by Mohammed Naguib, seized control of the government of Egypt. King Farouk was forced to abdicate and his infant son, now Fuad II, was proclaimed King of both Egypt and the Sudan. A new Cabinet, headed by Premier Aly Maher Pasha, took office. The new Cabinet was to hold the royal powers temporarily, pending the formation of a Regency Council. Later, Mohammed Naguib became premier. The government of Great Britain is not recognizing Fuad II as sovereign of the Sudan.

The Strategic Position of Turkey in the Middle East

If the Soviet Union succeeds in penetrating the oil fields of Iran, Iraq, and Saudi Arabia, one of the most serious consequences will be that in any future Soviet-inspired conflict Turkey will be out-flanked. During the postwar years this nation of 20,000,000 people, who have never swerved from a fierce hatred of Russia and of Communism, has assumed the leadership in the Middle East as the bitterest enemy of Communist expansion. Much to the chagrin of Russia, Turkey has become an important factor in the drive of the United Nations to contain Soviet imperialism. Dr. Selim Sarper, Turkey's outspoken representative on the UN Security Council, is a bitter and sarcastic enemy of the Russian representative, Jakob Malik. Turkey, moreover, is the only country in the Middle East to send troops to Korea. When Egypt represented the Middle East on the UN Security Council, the Egyptian representative abstained from voting on such vital issues as sending armed forces to Korea and generally tried to follow a neutral course in contentious matters. This contrasts sharply with the position adopted by Dr. Sarper who said, "Turkey makes no mystery of its position in world affairs. We stand with the enemies of Communist imperialism and will send our troops to fight wherever collective security is demanded." Here it might be noted that the Turkish contribution to the Korean fighting was not a token force and at one point in that conflict the Turkish casualty list was larger than that of any of the fourteen anti-Communist countries participating, except for the South Korean Republic and, of course, the United States.

For 1951, according to a UN survey, Turkey set aside thirty-four per cent of its budget for defence expenditures. This is a more generous percentage than that expended by Egypt, Iran, Iraq, Lebanon, or Trans-jordan. In addition, Turkey has received military assistance from the United States, but it must be pointed out that this assistance has been described as inadequate by the Turks and competent military authorities. In the light of the burden the Turkish army may have to carry against Russia in the future, these critics contend that much remains to be done to build up Turkish military strength.

Certainly, no one can dispute the strategic position of Turkey in any consideration of the problem of the Middle East. Her strategic position, moreover, astride the Dardanelles at the entrance to the Black Sea and Russia's port of Sevastopol, gives her a vital role in the future of the Eastern Mediterranean. Turkey also has a wealth of raw materials, including copper, coal, and manganese, which remain largely undeveloped. However, the Turkish government has inaugurated a five-year program calling for the expenditure of \$730,000,000 to raise living standards and increase agricultural and raw material production. This program is financed partially through the European Recovery Program and partially by the International Bank. In the fall of 1951, following the Ottawa Conference, Turkey, along with Greece, was made a partner in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization. It is now possible for Turkey to grant bomber bases on her territory that would be the closest to Russia that the Western Powers could possess. Since Turkey's frontier adjoins Russia, it would be possible from these Turkish air bases to immobilize the Trans-Caucasian oilfields, one of Russia's most valuable areas, and many other large Russian industrial centers. It might be noted, in passing, that on February 12, following the NATO conferences in Lisbon, the Greek and Turkish air and land forces were placed under the Southern European Command of U.S. Admiral R. B. Carney.

Areas of Tension in the Far East

During the post-war years 500,000,000 inhabitants of south east Asia have achieved self-government or the definite promise of it. Great Britain has taken the lead in this new era for the Far East by giving Burma complete independence, by setting up the former crown colony of Ceylon as a free dominion, by granting a form of home rule to a new Malayan Federation, and by enabling India and Pakistan to decide their respective political futures. Meanwhile, the Philippines received freedom from the United States on July 4, 1946, and Holland reluctantly renounced old time imperialism in the East Indies by agreeing to the creation of the Republic of the United States of Indonesia. French Indo-China has been promised considerable autonomy, but Communist activities have kept that unhappy land in a state of partial rebellion against the colonial system.

Before World War II, only Thailand (formerly known as Siam) and China could call themselves independent of foreign control in all the vast areas from the Arabian to the Yellow Sea. Now the Far East is a region of feverish political activity, with new regimes being established to replace European control. As could be expected, this state of turmoil has attracted Communist agents eager to expand the Soviet sphere of influence. Even Thailand, which has not experienced the internal post-war turmoil of the other Asiatic countries, has a communist problem with her very large Chinese minority who have been influenced by events in China and well-financed by Chinese Communist agents.

Burma—A Major "Hot Spot" in South East Asia

The Burmese Premier, Thakin Nu, remarked recently, "Anybody, when asked about the political situation in our country, will answer that it is an awful mess. There can be no other answer." This frank statement of Thakin Nu is an accurate one because what is going on in Burma is not so much a civil war as a kind of nation-wide riot. Several major groups, to say nothing of the countless minor groups, are taking part in the riot. Among the major groups are the "White Flag Communists," the "Red Flag Communists," and the "Karens." There is also an "Anti-Fascist People's Freedom League" which did considerably well in recent Burmese elections.

As the names of the two factions indicate, the Communists are split into two warring camps. The Communists were the first to take up arms against the government, as could be expected. They did this in 1948, about the same time that the Communists in India, Malaya, and Indonesia also resorted to "direct action" in response to Moscow's over-all strategy for Asia. The "White Flag Communists" may be described as orthodox Stalinists; they follow the Moscow strategy. Their leader is Thakin Than Tun. The "Red Flag Communists," led by Thakin So, refuse to take orders from Thakin Than Tun, and thus are known as Trotskyites.

The Karens, a jumbled patchwork of races, constitute the most important group in Burma. The Karens are not only one of the biggest racial groups, but they are the best fighting men in Burma. The Karens want a semi-autonomous state within Burma, which the government is willing to concede in principle but reluctant to carry out in practice.

In the midst of all the quarrels between the Burmese factions, there has come the unwelcome news that the Chinese Communists have repaired the famous Burma road, which runs from Kunming, the capital of the south-western Chinese province of Yunnan, to Lashio in north-eastern Burma, where it joins the railway to Mandalay. So well, it is reliably reported, have the Communists done their work, that the road can carry trucks as well as it ever did. This would give the Chinese Communists, now masters of the Chinese mainland, clear access to the heart of Upper Burma whenever they please. It is also reported that a pact has been made between the "White Flag Communists" and the Chinese high command for combined action against the usual bogey of "American imperialism." Under these circumstances the Burmese government has felt itself obliged to negotiate a settlement with the Karens who are far more powerful than its



other opponents. Such a settlement is an absolute prerequisite to re-establishing the government's authority. At a recent youth rally in Rangoon Premier Thakin Nu said, "Three years of revolution have cost Burma more than \$675,000,000. Destruction of property has cost us at least \$315,000,000; loss on our exports as much more; military expenditure the rest. If this expenditure and effort had been put into the defence of Burma, she would not now be so vulnerable to a possible Chinese attack."

Last fall the people of Burma went to the polls and elected their first government. They chose members for both houses of their parliament—the House of Nationalities and the House of Deputies. Approximately eighty per cent of the ballots were cast for the "Anti-Fascist People's Freedom League," which is a group of political organizations that follow a middle-of-the-road policy. Premier Thakin Nu became head of a new cabinet on March 16. He heads a cabinet of twenty-two ministers, most of whom are members of the People's Freedom League. Ba U became Burma's first president.

The new government has indicated a willingness to let the Karens (of whom there are about two million) set up an autonomous Karen state within the Burmese republic. The originator of this plan, Mrs. Ba Maung Chein, who is a Karen herself, is Minister of Karen Affairs in Thakin Nu's cabinet. She is urging the Karens to accept the plan of the new government. If the Karens co-operate perhaps the Burmese government will achieve a greater measure of stability.

The Communist Problem in Indo-China

Like Burma, French Indo-China has been in a state of civil conflict during the post-war years, although the fighting there has not been as confused as the Burmese insurrection. The Indo-Chinese trouble goes back to the Japanese occupation during the Second World War. The Japanese failed to suppress a Communist-organized nationalist movement called the Viet Minh League, that is, the League for the Independence of Viet Nam. (See the map on page 21.) Its leader was Ho Chi Minh ("One Who Shines"), a Moscow-trained Communist agent who posed as a nationalist patriot.

After the defeat of Japan, Ho Chi Minh and his followers proclaimed the establishment of a republic in Viet Nam. In January, 1946, France recognized this republic of Viet Nam as "a free state within the Indo-Chinese Federation and the French Union". France also granted the kingdoms of Laos and Cambodia (See map on page 21) a large measure of self-government as part of the French Union. This union was to become a commonwealth of equal states similar to the British Commonwealth. However, it soon became apparent that Ho Chi Minh was not so much interested in national independence for the people of Viet Nam as in transforming that region into a Soviet satellite state. In December, 1946, Ho's forces staged a surprise attack on the French garrisons in Annam and Tonkin. This treacherous action touched off the civil war which is still in progress.

France, of course, withdrew her recognition of Ho's regime. On June 14, 1949, Bao Dai, former Emperor of Annam, proclaimed himself, with French approval, the "chief of state" of Viet Nam. France then concluded an agreement with Bao Dai, granting his government control of all its affairs except foreign relations and national defence. The French also promised complete independence to Viet Nam within the French Union after the Communist peril has been overcome. On December 23, 1950, the French government granted wider powers to the three Indo-Chinese states. As of January 1, 1951, these states took over additional functions previously exercised by France, for example, the management of customs, immigration, finance, foreign trade, communications, and foreign exchange. They were also allowed to form national armies. Meanwhile, the United States, Great Britain, and other Western democracies have recognized the governments of Laos, Cambodia, and Viet Nam; these three states form the area known as Indo-China. Russia and her satellites, of course, have recognized Ho's regime which is being supplied with arms by Red China.

The Communist rebels at present control approximately a third of Viet Nam, which contains about eighty-five per cent of the people of Indo-China. This

constitutes a dangerous threat, since Indo-China is vitally important strategically. During World War II Japan used that territory as a springboard for her war operations in all of south-east Asia. Control of Indo-China by the Communists could lead to their control of near-by Thailand, Burma, Malaya, Indonesia, and possibly the Philippines. As the late French commander, General Jean de Lattre de Tassigny, expressed it, "Viet Nam is destined to be a great country and the world must understand the significance of the fighting here. Our troops fight not only to protect the Indo-China States but also the bastion of south-east Asia, and will go on defending this part of the world."

The struggle in Indo-China is far from over. There is the ever-present danger that Russia may provide the Communist forces with up-to-date weapons. Like Burma, French Indo-China is also in peril of a Chinese Communist decision to send in "volunteers" to help Communist rebels overthrow the established government. To support the latter of these fears a report from Formosa on March 16 said that 15,000 Chinese Red troops had joined the forces of the Communist Viet Minh rebels in Indo-China.

The Role of Singapore and Malaya in the Struggle Against Asiatic Communism

As the political center of south-east Asia, the thriving city of Singapore and the adjoining Malay peninsula have become another bastion against the westward sweep of Asiatic Communism. Amidst the anarchy of Burma, the civil war in Indo-China, and the collapse of China before the Red onslaught, the success of Great Britain in restoring law and order and setting up responsible self-government in Malaya has set a fortunate precedent.

In this task the British faced the usual problem of native unrest which had been skilfully fostered by Communists. The guerrilla army sponsored and armed by Great Britain during the Japanese occupation was largely Chinese and had a hard core of Moscow-trained Stalinists. After World War II the latter tried to ride into power by championing Malayan nationalism. Chinese leadership, however, dampened the enthusiasm of Malaysians who might have been aroused by the Communists. As experienced colonial administrators, the British proceeded to deal systematically with this situation. First, they called upon the guerrillas to surrender all arms, and paid them for each weapon given up.

Singapore was then made a separate crown colony. The rest of Malaya, which had been under the government of the Straits Settlements, was placed under the authority of the Union of Malay States which became a new federation under a treaty submitted to nine governing sultans in December, 1946. By the terms of this treaty, the British governor of the new crown colony of Singapore was designated as high commissioner to the federated sultanates.

The proposed constitution for the new Malayan federation not only recognized the Communist party as a legal political party, but it granted citizenship to practically all residents of Malaya. The Malaysians quickly protested because the proposed liberal immigration policy would have soon given the Chinese a complete majority, since thousands of the latter are fleeing from the Red domination. At Malayan insistence Great Britain changed the proposed constitution so that eighty per cent of the Chinese in Malaya were disqualified for citizenship. The Chinese formed a council of joint action to protest this decision. In 1947, the Malayan Communist party allied itself with the council. However, in February, 1948, the British Parliament adopted the proposed constitution without further change.

A series of Communist inspired strikes began which brought the outlawing of the Communist party in June, 1948. Promptly, the party went underground and endeavored to embroil Malaya in a full-scale civil war. Fortunately Great Britain had won the support of the Malaysians, and thus was able to recruit and train a Malayan army of 30,000 and a police force of 30,000 more Malaysians. The worst of the Communist insurrection is now over, but a steady program of hunting down Communists must continue, as the Reds are still retaliating in a few sporadic raids. The geographical conditions in Malaya make it nearly impossible to track down all the roving Communist bands. In addition,



of course, there is also the constant problem of coping with insidious Communist propaganda amongst the large Chinese population.

The presence of an unsettled state of affairs in Malaya was manifested when Sir Henry Gurney, the British commander-in-chief in Malaya, was ambushed and killed last October. He was succeeded by Sir Gerald W. Templar. With his appointment Britain began a new campaign to free Malaya of its rebellious Communists.

By retaining Singapore, which is seventy-eight per cent Chinese, as a crown colony, Great Britain has been able to keep that strategic center under her direct control. Such a port would be a prime objective in a Communist drive through south-east Asia, since Singapore is one of the world's great cross-roads. From it radiate cables to all parts of the world. Eight airlines whose routes reach out in every direction make it the air center of the Far East. Its great harbor, as well as its strategic location, make it a natural and major shipping center. Commercially, Singapore is the natural rubber market of the world. It is also the tin center of the world.

Formosa—A Problem Potentially Greater Than That of Korea

The island of Formosa is such a Far Eastern "hot-spot" that it could pose an international problem greater than that of Korea. This steamy, mountainous area, which is 150 to 250 miles off the Chinese coast, is the last refuge of the Chinese Nationalist government. It was to Formosa that the government of Chiang Kai-shek fled after a series of disastrous defeats on the Chinese mainland by the Communists. Because this island could be a target for Chinese Communist aggression, President Truman has ordered the United States Seventh Fleet to protect it from such an attack. As a result of this order, Formosa has become the source of a serious dispute between the United States and the Chinese Communist regime. Formosa has also figured in American foreign policy disputes between Republican party leaders and the Administration, between the Defence and State departments, and between General Douglas MacArthur and President Truman.

Meanwhile, Chiang Kai-shek is not very well prepared to stave off a Red attack if and when it comes. Formosa, which is about 200 miles long and 80 miles wide, has an area of 13,836 square miles and a population of 8,000,000. To defend this island, which is the fifty-fifth largest in the world, Chiang Kai-shek is able to muster only 150,000 troops, an air force of about 300 airplanes, and a small navy. Mao Tse-tung's Communist forces can mass many times more troops, but they presently are believed to lack the sea and air power needed for quick victory. Yet it is almost certain that the Chinese Communists, sooner or later, will attack Formosa because they cannot claim to have fully conquered China until they finally conquer Chiang Kai-shek. If such an attack were to come while the island is being protected by the United States, the ensuing conflict might well mark the beginning of a third World War.

Finally, it should be noted that Chiang Kai-shek's civil rule of the island seems to have kept the population there largely loyal to his cause. A land reform program has been vigorously carried out which forced landlords to scale down once usurious rents to 37.5 per cent of the crop. The Formosan currency has been stabilized and, for the first time in Chinese history, free elections have been held which gave Formosans a voice in Nationalist affairs. Something has also been done about civil liberties. Theoretically, no one may now be arrested without a police warrant or without the provincial governor being notified. Recently, severe sentences have been handed down against persons convicted of having given false witness against those accused of subversive activity. This development reflects a lessening of the fear of internal rebellion, which in the early months of 1950 resulted in many persons being taken out and shot by secret police organizations, several of which still operate in Formosa. On the whole, the Nationalist conduct of the civil government of Formosa may give some hope of improved administration should the Nationalists ever return to power on the mainland, but it must be admitted that it takes fewer good men to administer affairs on an island than on a continent.

The Colombo Plan in the Far East

The Colombo Plan, which was inaugurated at a Commonwealth conference in Colombo, Ceylon, in January, 1950, aims basically to:

1. Increase land under cultivation by 13,000,000 acres.
2. Increase land under irrigation by the same extent.
3. Raise food grain production by 6,000,000 tons.
4. Increase electric generating capacity by 1,100,000 kilowatts.

The fifteen countries taking part in the plan, which was originally outlined as a commonwealth scheme but grew in scope, are Canada, Australia, Ceylon, India, Pakistan, New Zealand, Viet Nam, Laos and Cambodia in Indo-China, the colonial territories of Malaya, Singapore, North Borneo and Sarawak, and Britain and the United States.

The original commonwealth consultative committee has become the international consultative committee, and meets periodically to examine progress. It is made up of ten representatives, one representative for all the colonial territories and one for the international bank.

The Colombo Plan calls for \$5 billion of capital development in six years for the Commonwealth countries of South and Southeast Asia. About \$3 billion of this must come from outside the area. To date, the contributing countries in the Colombo Plan have pledged themselves to support the program as follows:

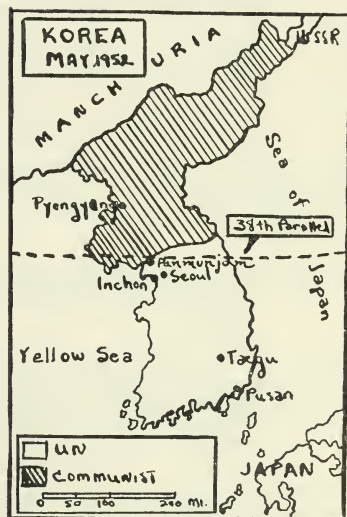
1. The United Kingdom will, over the six-year period, assist to a total of roughly \$900 million, chiefly in the release of sterling balances held by receiving countries.
2. Australia is contributing the equivalent of \$21 million this year, and over the six-year period will contribute the equivalent of at least \$75 million.
3. New Zealand has promised the equivalent of \$9 million over the first three years.
4. Canada contributed \$25 million for the first year, and the Government has announced its intention to seek Parliamentary approval for a second \$25 million contribution in order that participation in the Plan may continue in 1952-53.
5. In addition to the contributing countries of the Commonwealth, the United States, through its own programs of economic aid in the same area, is devoting about \$200 million this year to economic development projects.

Korea—A Country Where East and West are Locked in Combat

Korea was annexed by Japan in 1910 and was under Japanese rule until the end of World War II. After the war the country was divided into two parts, North Korea and South Korea. Russia occupied the northern part while the United States controlled the southern portion of the country. The 38th parallel was chosen as the dividing line between the two parts.

The division of Korea into two parts caused many hardships to the people. It disrupted the economy of the country. In the northern region is the heavy industry built up by Japan, also most of the coal, iron, and steel production, as well as rich agricultural land. The northern zone contains about sixty per cent of the population of twenty-six million, and is predominantly agricultural. South Korean industry is dependent on North Korean electric power. When this was cut off in 1948, industry was brought almost to a halt. Power formerly sent to South Korea was diverted to Communist-controlled Manchuria. Because of economic difficulties the people in the southern area had to depend on American aid.

Attempts to bring the two parts together under one government were futile. Russia established a Communist regime (the Korean People's Republic)



Four Phases of the War in Korea

in North Korea, while a freely elected government (Republic of Korea) was set up in the South. Russia withdrew her occupation forces from the northern part of the peninsula in December, 1948, after a Communist army had been well trained. The United States withdrew her forces from South Korea in January, 1949.

On June 25, 1950, the Soviet-supported army of North Korea launched a well-planned attack on the South. The United States, in fulfilment of her promise to protect the liberty of South Korea, immediately rushed badly needed war supplies to the South Koreans.

The Republic of Korea reported to the Security Council of the U.N. the attack from the north by the Communists. The Council then issued a cease-fire order to the North Koreans and when this was ignored the U.N. was empowered by the provisions of the Charter to take action against the aggressor.

For a time the battle line see-sawed back and forth. By the summer of 1951 the front had become more stabilized. The present battle line is much the same as that shown on the map for July, 1951. During the past year the truce negotiations have had equal place with the war itself in the headlines.

The truce talks began at Kaesong on July 10, 1951. They were interrupted on August 23 after the Communists charged that U.N. forces had violated the neutral truce zone. The talks were resumed at Panmunjom on October 25. Late in 1951 an agreement on a provisional cease-fire line was signed. It was effective for thirty days and expired on December 27. The negotiators find it difficult to agree on the following points:

1. In order to prevent a build-up of military power while the armistice is in effect, the U.N. wants a team, made up of men of neutral nations, to keep a check on both sides during the armistice period. This plan is opposed by the Communists.
2. The U.N. wants a man-for-man exchange of war prisoners. No Communist prisoners are to be returned against their will. The Communists disagree on this issue also.
3. The Communists want all "foreign" troops to leave Korea after peace is made. The U.N. negotiators insist that some U.N. troops must remain there until Korea is made safe against attacks in the future.
4. The U.N. refuses to have Russians on the supervisory committee which is to consist of members of six nations.
5. U.N. delegates want a more accurate account of the number of troops captured by the Communists.

On April 23 the U.N. negotiators presented the Communist delegates with a peace offer which is known as the "package deal". It is to be accepted by the Communists in its entirety. The "package deal" contains the following three points:

1. The United Nations will return 70,000 Communist war prisoners. In exchange 12,000 U.N. troops now held by the Communists are to be returned. (The total number of Red prisoners held by the U.N. is 132,000.)
2. If the Communists accept the "package deal" they would be required to stop insisting that Russia be nominated as one of the neutral nations to help supervise the armistice. However, Poland and Czechoslovakia (Russia's satellites) would be accepted as supervisors in exchange for Communist acceptance of Sweden and Switzerland.
3. In return for the above concessions the Reds would be allowed to build new airfields and to repair damaged ones.

The prisoner-exchange issue is still the biggest obstacle in the negotiations. Only 70,000 prisoners captured by the U.N. want to go back. The Communist negotiators do not appear disposed to accept the offer. However,

General Ridgway gave the U.N. stand when he said, "The United Nations proposal embodies the limit to which the United Nations Command can go and is not subject to substantive change". There the matter stands at present.

Meanwhile, there have been demands from some quarters that the large power plants on the Yalu River, of which the Suiho Dam is the greatest, be bombed. These plants supply current for munitions factories in both North Korea and Manchuria. There have also been suggestions that installations north of the Manchurian border be destroyed in order to obstruct a build-up of Chinese military power which the Reds intend to use in Korea. Some observers believe that China entered the conflict in Korea because it feared that the North Korean electrical installations might fall into foreign hands. Efforts were made to assure the Chinese that the power plants will be protected if the war is ended. The lengthy peace negotiations in Korea gave the enemy a good opportunity to use them in his military preparations, however. In June General Mark Clark, General Ridgway's successor, got the go-ahead from Washington to bomb installations, and in the raids that were carried out the power plants on the North Korean side of the Manchurian border were all but destroyed. Shrill complaints have been made by the Reds. What the repercussions will be can only be conjectured at present.

Japan—A Nation Which Has Discarded Absolutism for Democracy

Japan, a country smaller in area than the state of California, but with a population of 84,000,000 came into contact with the western world in 1542, when a Portuguese ship visited the country. Contact with European countries was maintained until 1631. Thereafter Japan went into isolation and did not again enter into relations with the West until 1853, when Commodore Matthew Perry brought an American fleet into Tokyo Bay. After her renewed contact with the West, Japan quickly became a modern, industrial, and powerful nation. Beginning in 1895, she built up for herself, at the expense of her neighbors, a large empire. Japanese alliance with the Axis powers was a bid to establish Japan as the supreme power in the Far East.

All was lost on V-J Day, August 1945, when the Japanese surrendered to the Allies whose leaders had declared at Yalta in February 1945 that the Japanese would have to withdraw to their island homeland and stay there.

The Japanese empire grew as the following areas were overrun:

Formosa, 1895.

Port Arthur and Manchuria, 1905.

Korea, 1910.

German islands in the Pacific mandated to Japan in 1920 by the Treaty of Versailles.

Manchuria, 1931.

Southern China, French Indo-China, Siam, Burma, Dutch and British East Indies, Malaya, the Philippine Islands, many Pacific Islands during 1940-1945.

After World War II Japan was occupied by United States forces under General MacArthur. He played a vigorous part in shaping the occupational policy, although he was assisted by two advisory bodies, the Far Eastern Commission at Washington and the Allied Council for Japan at Tokyo. Both councils were composed of Allied representatives.

During the occupation a new government was set up in Japan. The structure of the new government which gives the Japanese people a political freedom they have never before exercised, is worth examination. In general outline it is similar to the structure of the British government.

1. The House of Representatives (the lower house), comparable to the

British House of Commons, has 466 members elected by the people for a period of four years.

2. The prime minister and his cabinet ministers are drawn from the House of Representatives and are responsible to it.
3. The House of Councillors (the upper house), similar to our Senate, has 250 members also elected by the people for a period of six years.
4. The Emperor, who formerly had the power to dissolve parliament at will, is now a mere figurehead acting as a symbol of state unity.

By the summer of 1951 the western nations considered the time ripe for a peace treaty with Japan. It was signed in San Francisco on September 8, 1951, by forty-eight non-Communist nations. The following are the main conditions:

1. Japan was given recognition as an independent nation. The State of War between Japan and the signing powers was ended.
2. Japan gave up claims to Korea and recognized its independence. She also gave up claims to the Pescadores and Formosa, to lower Sakhalin, the Kurile Islands, the Paracel Islands, and the Pacific Islands which are presently under the trusteeship of the United Nations. Japan also accepts U.N. trusteeship of the Okinawa (Ryukyu) Islands, the Volcano Islands, the Bonins, the Parace Vela, and the Marcus Islands.
3. Japan pledged herself to give full support to the principles of the U.N. She also undertook to settle future differences through negotiation.
4. The Allies promised to withdraw all occupation forces not later than ninety days after the treaty was signed.
5. No heavy reparations payments were stipulated in the treaty, although compensation from Japan for destruction during the war may be demanded in some cases.
6. Japan was given permission to allow foreign troops in the country. This condition makes it possible for the United States to continue using military bases in Japan.
7. Japan is allowed to establish an army for defence purposes.
8. If there are differences of opinion as to the interpretation of certain parts of the treaty, the matter is to be handed over to the International Court of Justice for a ruling.

Upon the signing of the treaty Premier Yoshida promised, "The Japan of today is no longer the Japan of yesterday. We will not fail your expectations of us as a new nation dedicated to peace, democracy, and freedom".

EUROPE—A CONTINENT DIVIDED BY THE IRON CURTAIN

Although Russia and the Western Allies fought side by side during World War II they soon drifted apart after the cessation of hostilities. Since the war Russia has sealed off the parts of the world over which she has control, and enforces a strict secrecy concerning what is going on in the Communist countries. The rigid control which Russia exercises to prevent a leakage of information from countries under her control is known as the **Iron Curtain**. Behind the iron curtain (in Europe) are 249,605,000 people. They live in the countries of Albania, Bulgaria, Romania, Hungary, Poland, East Germany (Soviet Zone), Austria (Soviet Zone), Czechoslovakia, and the Soviet Union (European part). The people who live outside the iron curtain in Europe number 297,002,000. They inhabit Greece, Yugoslavia, Trieste, Italy, West Germany, Austria (Western Zone), Belgium, Netherlands, Luxembourg, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden, Finland, Iceland, Ireland (Eire), Britain, France, Portugal, and Spain.

Allied leaders are convinced that the Communists are endeavoring to establish their rule over the entire world. To combat the Communist effort the Western Allies are inaugurating a global defence system. In that defence policy the continent of Europe plays a major role. The subjugation of Europe would give Russia invaluable sources of many materials, including coal and steel. Important allies of the West would be pushed behind the iron curtain. Above all, it would make a Communist assault on the western world much easier.

In order to brace themselves against the Communist threat the European countries are working together as they never have before. Their co-operative activities have become so evident that many statesmen are talking of a United States of Europe. Several organizations have been created to muster the political, military, and economic might of the free nations of Europe.

The first in the list of defensive organizations is the **Organization for European Economic Co-operation (O.E.E.C.)** which was created by eighteen nations, including Trieste, on April 16, 1948. Its first task was to deal with Marshall Plan funds, but now it works to facilitate trade among European nations. Its headquarters are in Paris.

The **Council of Europe**, a political organization, was created in 1949. Fourteen nations and the Saar are members. It tries to find solutions to cultural and political differences that have divided Europeans for centuries. Its headquarters are in Strasbourg.

The **North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)**, a military union, was formed in March, 1949. Fourteen nations are now members. They are working hand-in-hand with Canada and the United States to bolster the defences against Communism. NATO headquarters are in Paris.

The **Schuman Plan**, a fifty-year agreement signed on March 19, 1951, is a plan to pool the production and distribution of coal and steel by the signatories. Six nations of western Europe are involved; they are the Benelux countries—Belgium, The Netherlands, and Luxembourg—France, Italy, and West Germany.

The **European Defence Community (E.D.C.)** was created at the recent Lisbon meeting of NATO. It includes six countries: France, Italy, Belgium, Luxembourg, The Netherlands, and West Germany. According to its terms the signatories agree to pool their military resources—land, sea, and air—and put them into a common reservoir.

The **Green Pool** is a comparatively new plan. It is an arrangement by seventeen nations to pool their agricultural production for their common benefit.

The upshot of the various organizations has been to bring the European nations closer together; to make the continent a more cohesive unit. This is just what the Communists seek to avoid. It is an obstacle in their divide-and-conquer policy.

PROBLEMS IN SOME PARTICULAR AREAS OF EUROPE

France—The Fourth Republic

France began to experiment with a non-monarchic form of government in 1792. In that year the eight hundred-year-old monarchy came to an end when Louis XVI was guillotined. The Government of the Revolution (First Republic) followed. It lasted only two years, however, and was dissolved in 1794, during the Terror. It was succeeded by a Directory of five men, and a Consulate. Napoleon Bonaparte became the First Consul.

In 1804, Napoleon made himself Emperor. He reigned for ten years. His reign is known as the First Empire. After his defeat in 1815, the House of Bourbon was restored. In 1830, a constitutional monarchy (non-absolute) was installed. It lasted until 1848, a year in which the sound of revolution reverberated all over Europe.

The Second Republic was established in 1848. Louis Napoleon, a nephew of Napoleon I, was elected President. In 1852, he followed the example of his uncle and declared himself Emperor. His reign, known as the Second Empire, collapsed when the Germans defeated France in the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-71. A provisional government under Thiers, whose task it was to make peace with the Germans, followed the Second Empire. It lasted until 1875, when a new constitution inaugurated the Third Republic.

The Third Republic lasted until 1940, when the German armies under Adolf Hitler overwhelmed the French nation. It gave France the best example of democratic government. It was badly weakened by World War I, the effects of which were still evident in 1939, when World War II began. After the defeat of France in 1940, about half of the country was occupied by the Germans. The other half was allowed a partially independent government which was led by Marshal Petain. Its capital was at Vichy.

When the Germans were driven from French soil late in World War II, a government was set up under General Charles DeGaulle. It gave up office when the Constituent Assembly, elected in 1945, drew up a constitution which ushered in the Fourth Republic of France. Vincent Auriol became the President.

The Fourth Republic functions under great hardships. Like other European nations, it has a Communist problem. Until 1948, the Communist Party had the greatest following, and there was a constant threat to the political structure of France. Strikes often disrupted the country from end to end. Even now the Communists present a powerful front. In a national election held on June 17, 1951, the Communists gained 103 seats. DeGaullists gained 118, Socialists 104, Radicals 94, Popular Republicans 85, and others the remaining 123 seats (a total of 627 seats). Although the Communists are not as strong as they were in 1948, their large representation is an obstacle in the way of harmonious government.

Lack of money is a major cause of disagreement among French political factions. Money is needed to keep the war going against the Communists in Indo-China. In addition, France has pledged a contribution of twelve divisions to the European Army. A proposed increase in taxes by 15 per cent to raise the necessary funds for defence brought about the downfall of Premier Faure on February 29. Antoine Pinay, who took office on March 6, promised that there would be no relaxation in the defence effort. How successful he will be in raising the required funds only time will tell.

One of the most notable characteristics of the French government is the frequent change in cabinet (the latest political crisis which forced Premier Edgar Faure to resign on February 29, was the seventeenth during the life of the Fourth Republic). The reason for this is twofold. In the first place one party seldom has a large enough majority to form a cabinet. The prime minister must form a coalition cabinet from the parties that are prepared to work with him. These coalitions have tended to fall apart when confronted with a crisis, necessitating a re-grouping of parties under a new leader. Secondly the nature of the constitution tends to produce frequent cabinet changes. The French cabinet is not given the wide power that is granted to the British and Canadian cabinets. The authority of the National Assembly is such that it can defeat the

Cabinet without risking a general election. It should be noted that cabinet reshuffles are not as disruptive as might be expected. Ministers often survive several crises and retain office under several prime ministers.

Germany—A Divided Nation

Germany is a land of changing boundaries (see the maps on page 34). In 1860 it was still an aggregation of states, some independent, some only semi-independent. The most powerful German state was Prussia. It was under the leadership of Bismarck, an able militarist. He was determined to unite Germany by what he called a policy of "blood and iron." Altogether he fought three wars to unite Germany and establish the boundaries of 1871; the most significant of the three was the Franco-Prussian War of 1870-1871. When the aggressive Kaiser William II came to the throne in 1888, he took the reins of power from Bismarck and increased the war might of Germany. Under him Germany was led into World War I in 1914. Defeat left Germany reduced in size by the Peace of Versailles in 1919. Alsace-Lorraine was restored to France, and Poland, having regained her independence, was given a corridor to the Baltic Sea.

The rise of Hitler to power brought sudden and disturbing frontier moves for Germany. Austria was annexed in 1938. The next year Czechoslovakia was absorbed by Hitler's Reich (Empire). It was the invasion of Poland by Hitler's army that precipitated World War II in September 1939. Again, in spite of early successes, Germany was defeated. Her country was occupied and temporary boundaries were established, leaving Germany greatly reduced in size. For occupation purposes Germany was at first divided into four zones. The eastern zone, which includes Berlin, was occupied by Russia. The other three zones were occupied by Britain, United States, and France. The three zones occupied by the western powers were eventually merged into one for administration purposes.

Major differences in opinion between Russia and the western occupation powers became evident soon after the war and as a result different policies have been followed in each of the two areas. The Russians began to arm Germans in their zone. To offset Russia's attempt to bring all of Germany under Communist control the Bonn Republic was set up in August, 1949. Germans enjoyed their first free elections since 1933.

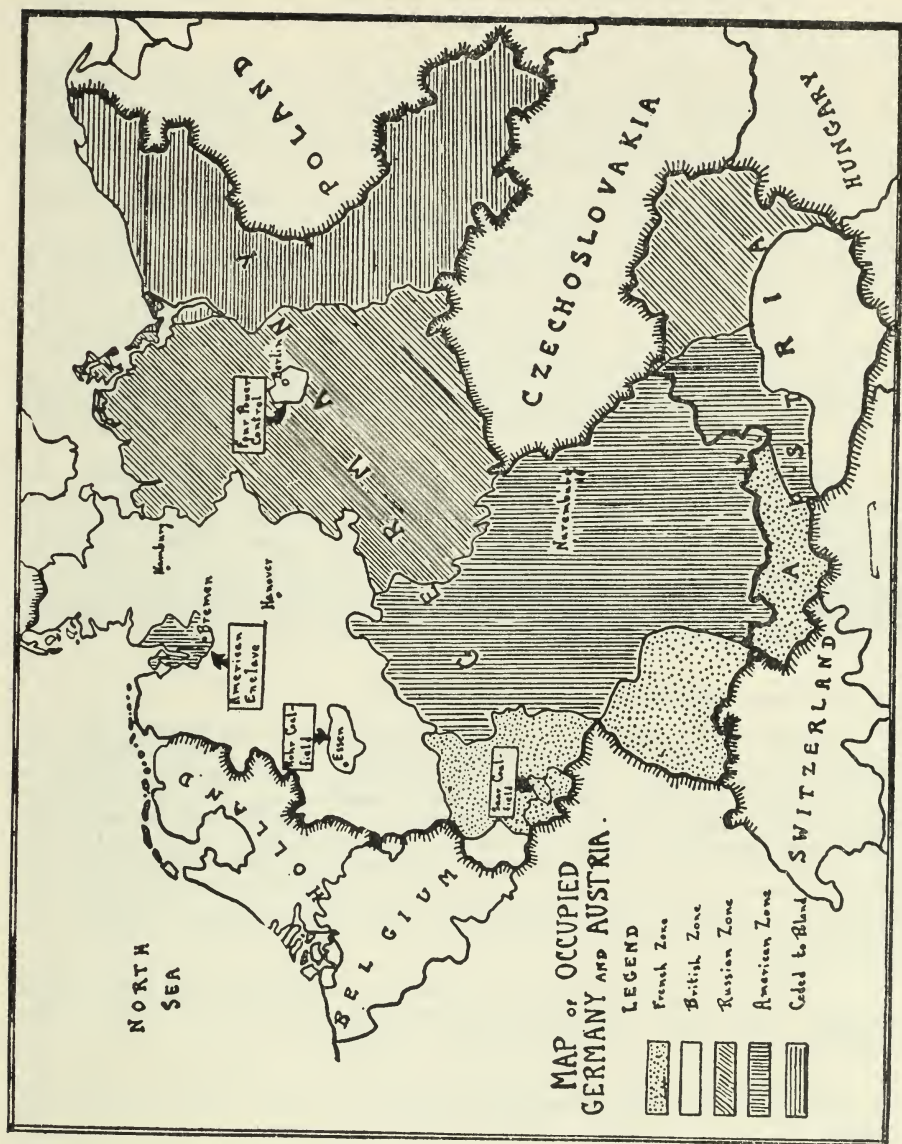
As the rift between East and West grew wider and the western powers created the European Army to cope with the threat of Communism, the question of including Germans in the common defence forces arose. Frenchmen, having in mind the three wars they fought with Germany since 1870, were reluctant to permit Germans to rearm. The Germans, on the other hand, insisted on a voice in the management of the European Army if they were to contribute troops and equipment to it. To establish a compromise, the European Defence Community (E.D.C.), a powerful defence organization, was set up at the Lisbon meeting of the NATO countries (see page 31). Six nations including West Germany will contribute to the E.D.C. forces. Germany will have a voice in the management of the E.D.C. Army as a full-fledged member, but not in the forces of NATO of which she is not a member. France thus feels that she has a larger voice in European defence generally since she is a member of both organizations.

Another German problem is that of unification. People in both East and West Germany would like to see their country united under one government again. Both Russia and the western powers have voiced an interest in German unification, but it is difficult to reach an understanding with the Communists who would like to see Germany united under a Communist government. Since there is little hope of an early union of Germany, the Western Democracies signed a separate "peace contract" with West Germany in May, 1952. The term "peace contract" is used because one of the victorious nations (Russia) did not sign it and, therefore, it is not a peace treaty. The contract helps to bring West Germany more effectively into the western defence scheme. The signing countries were Britain, France, the United States and, of course, West Germany.

The conditions outlined in the "peace contract" are numerous and can-



Germany's Changing Boundaries



not be dealt with in detail here. Some of the major points are listed below:

1. The occupation is revoked. The signatories will conduct their relations through ambassadors.
2. The Federal Republic of Germany will have authority over both its internal and external affairs. Certain rights relating to the stationing of troops in Germany and their protection are retained by the occupying powers, however. Allied occupation forces become defence forces.
3. West Germany agrees to participate in the European Defence Community. Financial as well as troop contributions will be made. The Federal Republic becomes an equal partner with other European nations and agrees to conduct its affairs according to the principles of the United Nations Charter.
4. There is no final settlement of boundaries; this must await a final peace treaty for the whole of Germany.
5. The Federal Republic agrees to aid in the political, cultural, and economic reconstruction of Berlin.
6. The four signatory nations agree to review the peace contract at the request of any one of them in the event of the unification of Germany, or in the event a European federation is created.
7. An arbitration tribunal is to be set up which will have jurisdiction over all disputes which cannot be settled by negotiation between the signatories.

The Western Allies have thus gained the voluntary participation of West Germany in the European defence program. The Communists, of course, are irritated and have indicated that there will be reprisals against the peace contract. Otto Grotewohl, Communist Premier of East Germany, recently warned, "The signing of the contractual agreement will produce in Germany the same conditions that existed in Korea. It will bring Germany to the brink of a civil war, and of a new third World War." Incidents have already occurred and indications are that an intensive war of nerves is in the offing.

Italy—Another Contributor to Western Defence

Fascist Italy joined her axis partner, Germany, in the war on June 10, 1940. After her defeat she was duly held responsible for her part in the damage and crime which was caused in Europe during the war. In February, 1947, after fifteen months of negotiation, Italy signed a peace treaty with the victorious allies. In the treaty Italy renounced all title to her African colonies of Libya, Eritrea, and Italian Somaliland. These countries were placed under the trusteeship of the United Nations until their future has been agreed upon. Libya has already become an independent sovereign state (a kingdom under King Idris); Somaliland has been promised independence at a later date, and the status of Eritrea is to be determined by the will of its people when that will is more fully ascertained.

The boundary between France and Italy was adjusted to give France five small Alpine areas with the understanding that hydro-electric developments in these places should be shared by France and Italy.

Yugoslavia received about 3,000 square miles of former Italian territory, and Trieste, a port on the Adriatic, became Free Territory under international control.

The Dodecanese Islands, inhabited by 150,000 Greeks, given to Italy in 1920, were returned to Greece.

Fascism was to be stamped out.

The Italian navy was reduced to two small battleships and four cruisers.

The army was restricted to 250,000 men. The air force was restricted to 350 aircraft, none of which could be bombers.

Reparations totalling \$360,000,000 and an unspecified amount in overseas property and assets were to be paid by Italy to the Allies. Payments were to be made over a period of seven years, chiefly in factory equipment and industrial products.

Since the peace treaty was signed relations between the West and the Soviet block of nations have greatly deteriorated and Italy has joined in the European defence plan against Communism. It is a member of both NATO and E.D.C. In view of her new status Italy asked that the terms of her peace treaty be revised, particularly those clauses which curb her defence effort. On December 21, 1951, Italy was freed by ten western nations, including the United States, Britain, and France, from the limitations set on her army, navy, and air force by the 1947 treaty. With the added leeway Italy will be able to give more effective aid to the European defence forces. She obtained eight warships from the United States in December. They are equipped with radar and are valued at \$23,000,000. Modern aircraft and army weapons are also going to Italy from the United States to equip the forces she is mustering. Italy has about 100,000 men in the NATO Army now. She plans to increase the number to 200,000 by the end of 1952.

Italy, like other countries in Europe, carries on her defence effort in the face of Communist opposition. An idea of the Communist strength in Italy may be drawn from the results of local elections which were held in the summer of 1951. The figures for fifty-seven provincial councils indicated the following percentages:

Right Wing group	5.7 per cent
Communist group	37.1 per cent
Government supporters	55.9 per cent

As could be expected, Russia has protested the relaxation of restrictions on Italian rearmament. She has also refused Italian membership in the United Nations.

Yugoslavia—A Communist Country Not Behind the Iron Curtain

The Republic of Yugoslavia is made up of six small states: Serbia, Croatia, Slovenia, Macedonia, Montenegro, and Bosnia. It became one nation as a result of World War I. During World War II the country was occupied by German troops. The occupation was resisted by two anti-Nazi movements, one led by Draja Mihailovitch and the other by Marshal Tito. The two forces did not only fight the Germans but they also carried on warfare against each other. Tito won the struggle, had Mihailovitch put to death, and proceeded to establish a Communist government in Yugoslavia.

Tito co-operated with Communist Russia at first. He did not feel compelled to bow to dictation from Moscow, however. Russia wanted Yugoslavia to produce mainly raw materials and food, and to buy manufactured goods from other Communist countries. Tito, on the contrary, wanted to develop Yugoslavia's manufacturing industry. Moscow also wanted Tito to take the farm lands away from the private owners more rapidly. The peasants in Yugoslavia, however, prefer private ownership of land and Tito was not prepared to seize farm lands too rapidly. Finally, Tito became the active leader of a movement the purpose of which was to establish a Balkan federation of Yugoslavia, Albania, and Bulgaria. Russia had other plans for these countries and a Balkan federation would have been a great obstacle in the execution of those plans. The upshot of all these differences was a rift between Yugoslavia and the Soviet-controlled countries, a rift which has steadily widened since 1948.

Since Yugoslavia has withdrawn her support of Russia she has been getting aid from the United States in the form of heavy machinery, cash loans, and favorable trade agreements. Russia is becoming increasingly angry over Yugoslavia's stubborn refusal to do as Moscow bids. Incidents have occurred

between Tito's soldiers and those of neighboring Communist countries. On September 8, 1951, Tito was warned by Molotov and Voroshilov, both members of the Soviet Politburo, that a day of reckoning is near. There is no indication that Tito intends to give way, however. On February 29 of this year Yugoslavia was granted \$45,000,000 in aid by Britain, France, and the United States for the purpose of strengthening its defences against the iron curtain countries.

Trieste—A Bone of Contention in the Adriatic

The tiny area of Trieste with its population of 345,000 has become a bone of contention between Italy and Yugoslavia. Italy acquired Trieste by the Treaty of Rapallo in 1920 and owned it until the end of World War II. After the war it was taken away from her. The territory was divided into two zones, Zone A, the northern part, and Zone B, the southern part. Zone A, which is 86 square miles in area, was placed under British and American control and Zone B, which is 201 square miles in area, was placed under the control of Yugoslavia.

Now both Italy and Yugoslavia want the entire area of Trieste. As a matter of fact, the Yugoslavs have practically made Zone B a part of their country and would like to do the same with Zone A. For a time the Western Powers considered returning the land to Italy (they actually proposed in March, 1948, that the City of Trieste be returned), but now that Yugoslavia is friendly to the West her wishes cannot be ignored.

Yugoslavia would like to own Zone A because it is a richer area than Zone B. Most of the people of Trieste live there. Within Zone A lies the City of Trieste, through whose port flow many goods into Central Europe. Important industries, including steel and iron mills, oil refineries, and an auto plant give employment to the people.

In contrast, Zone B is poor. Agriculture is the main industry there. The land is hilly and rocky so that hard work is required to wrest a living from the soil. There is little industrial development.

Officially Trieste is a Free Territory under the jurisdiction of the United Nations Security Council. A governor was to have been appointed for Trieste but, since the Western Powers and Russia cannot agree on a man to fill the position, Anglo-American and Yugoslav forces still administer affairs in their respective zones. Last March 9 Italy was given the right to name a political advisor to assist the Commander in Zone A in all affairs which affect Italy. Marshal Tito bitterly criticized the new move and declared that Yugoslavia would not approve it. Thus Trieste presents a problem to which a solution has yet to be found.

THE POLITICAL SITUATION IN BRITAIN

The Development of the Labor Party

The Labor Party in Britain has undergone a gradual but steady process of growth. Working men became enfranchised in 1884, and after that date their vote became important in politics. Their power was increasing through trade unions, so it was natural that Labor should try to take an active part in government. The Independent Labor Party was formed in 1893 under Keir Hardy. He and one other member were elected to Parliament in 1900, and there were 30 members by 1906. Ramsay Macdonald became the leader in 1911.

The party grew steadily until in 1922 it became the second largest party in the House of Commons and, therefore, the official opposition. A Labor government was in power in 1924 from January until October when it became too friendly with Russia and there was so much opposition that a new election was called. The Conservatives won.

A second Labor government came into power in 1929, under Ramsay Macdonald again. By 1931 its majority was so small and there were so many problems in the country that Labor, Liberal, and Conservative united to form a National Government, still under Macdonald. He resigned in 1935 and the Conservatives came into power.

The election of the summer of 1945 left Labor with a large majority—400 of the 640 seats. This third Labor government, under Clement Attlee, tried to pull Britain through the post war period of high prices and lack of gold. It proceeded to implement its plan of nationalization by bringing coal mines, railways, electricity, gas, trucking, airlines, steel, and banking under government control. The Labor government carried out its nationalization plans in the following order:

1. The nationalization of the Bank of England. This was essentially the national treasury, but was privately governed until February 1946, when it became the state bank.
2. The Coal Industry Nationalization Act of 1946 brought the coal industry under state control. A National Coal Board responsible to the government took over the hundreds of collieries in Britain. The owners received compensation and the miners now worked for the state.
3. Next came the nationalization of transport and communication. This involved civil aviation, tele-communications, radio and inland transport. Coupled with this was the nationalization of the electric power industry.
4. The gas industry was transferred to public ownership in 1948.
5. The Act to nationalize the iron and steel industry was passed in 1949 but the actual transfer of ownership was postponed until 1951.

The Labor government also introduced an extensive welfare service. It was based on the report of William Beveridge, who, during the war years, was asked by the British government to investigate and make proposals for a reformed national social security program. This was done, and a report was presented to the government known as the Beveridge Plan.

The legislation which set the British welfare service in motion is contained in the Family Allowances Act, 1945, the National Insurance Act, 1946, and the National Insurance (Industrial Injuries) Act, 1946.

The Family Allowances Act provides small cash allowances to the mothers of children, similar to those provided in Canada. The National Insurance Acts provide the following benefits for various groups of workers:

Unemployment Benefits	Widow's Pension
Sickness Benefits	Confinement Allowance
Retirement Pensions	Maternity Grant
Maternity Allowance	Death Grant
Widow's Allowance	Guardian Allowance
Widowed Mother's Allowance	Industrial Injuries

Services available in addition to the above income services were made to include:

Ante-natal clinics	Public Health Visitor
Maternity and Child Welfare Clinics	Free Secondary Schooling
Free Primary Schooling	Local Youth Services
Juvenile Employment Service	Midwife Service
Free School Medical Service	Nursery Schools
Further Education	Home Help
Priority Rations	Priority Foods for Children
Free Medical Service	Free milk at school
Special services for handicapped persons	Free or cheap school meals
Maternity Hospital	Dental Services
	Optical Services

In order to finance such an expensive welfare scheme contributions from both employers and employees were required. In addition taxes were increased enormously.

The election results of February 23, 1950, proclaimed a waning faith on the part of the British people in the Labor Party. Labor lost nearly 80 seats and was left with a majority of only 6 members in the House of Commons. Immediately there was talk of another election, but for a time the Labor government managed to muster its small majority of 6 or less when it was confronted with a crisis, and thus avoid defeat. Late in 1951 the Labor government bowed to the inevitable, however, and called an election for October 25.

This last election left the Conservatives with a majority of 16 members in the House of Commons. Prime Minister Clement Attlee resigned and a Conservative government under Winston Churchill took office. Final results given shortly after the election were as follows:

Conservatives and associated members	320
Laborites	295
Liberals	6
Independent members	1
Irish Nationalist members	2
Speaker (a neutral member)	1
<hr/>	
TOTAL.....	625*

The Conservatives undertook, among other things, to de-nationalize the steel industry, to de-centralize the administration of the coal industry and the rail and other transport systems which were nationalized under the Labor regime, to put into effect a program of house-building, to increase family allowances, to examine the restrictions on rent increases, to reduce the expense of government, and to remove government controls on business where it can be done advantageously. To carry out its promises the Conservative government announced pay cuts of cabinet members shortly after the election. Small charges for medical services are already being made by the Tories, and just recently it was announced that the nationalized trucking industry will be sold back to its private owners. Thus the Conservatives have begun to undo what the Laborites thought they had achieved.

What does the British public think about the policy of the new Conservative government? Recent municipal elections in Britain (held during May) showed that Laborites picked up twice as many new members as did the Conservatives. Although results of the municipal elections will not interfere with control of the House of Commons they indicate a waning support for toryism among the British public.

* There has been a redistribution of constituencies in Britain since the 1945 election. The boundaries of many former constituencies were altered; only 80 of the present 625 seats remained unchanged. The provisions on which the present distribution is based are incorporated in the "Representation of the People Act, 1948." That act eliminated the twelve University seats. It also abolished the business vote. In addition, it did away with the double-member constituencies of which there were twelve. They were redistributed into single seats.

A BRIEF HISTORY OF BRITISH QUEENS

Britain Begins Another Elizabethan Era

Elizabeth II is the eighth queen to occupy the British throne. She is the first woman ruler since 1901, when Queen Victoria died. The reigns of some of the queens of Britain have coincided with periods of prosperity, growth, and strength. It is for that reason, perhaps, that many people throughout the British Commonwealth look upon the accession of Queen Elizabeth II as a good omen.

In contrast to the reigns of later queens, those of the first three were not marked by prosperity and growth. Queen Matilda, the mother of Henry II, was the first queen to occupy the British Throne. She ruled from 1141 to 1143. Her reign was marred by war and bloodshed, arising out of her cousin Stephen's attempt to seize the crown.

Lady Jane Grey occupied the throne for only nine days in 1553. She was succeeded by Mary I, who reigned from 1553 to 1558. Her support of the Counter-Reformation made her reign a turbulent one.

Queen Elizabeth I, who was the British sovereign from 1558 to 1603, began the reigns of great queens. During her reign England became a country of world importance. It flourished in every phase of life—in economy, power, politics, science, philosophy, and literature.

Queen Mary II, who reigned from 1689 to 1694 (with William III) and Queen Anne, who was on the throne from 1702 to 1714, did not have strong and dominating personalities, but music, art, architecture, and literature advanced markedly during their periods of rulership. During the same period the British Constitution also began to take its present form.

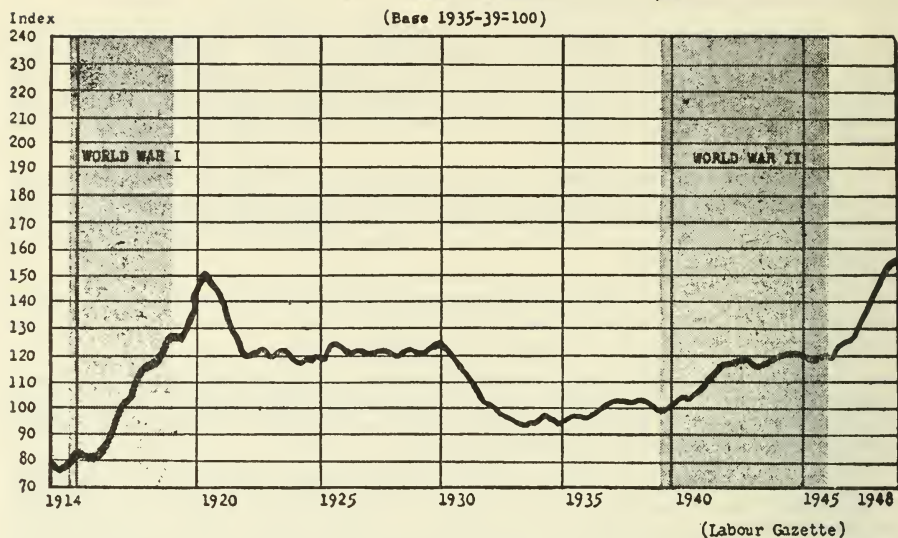
The reign of Queen Victoria, 1837 to 1901, witnessed the greatest period of development of Britain and the Empire. During her reign Britain became the world's greatest power. It achieved a zenith in prosperity, reached new heights in literature, and made great strides in the field of legislation. It was truly an era of achievement.

And now we have Queen Elizabeth II. Like Elizabeth I, she ascended the throne at the age of twenty-five. She has been well trained for her duties as sovereign, for after the abdication of her uncle, Edward VIII, in 1936, her eventual succession to the throne was a virtual certainty. She has lived much of her life before the public and has gradually been introduced to the business of state. She has a deep sense of responsibility which is borne out in a broadcast she made on her twenty-first birthday. She declared, "I declare before you all that my whole life, whether it be long or short, shall be devoted to your service and the service of our great Imperial family to which we all belong. But I shall not have the strength to carry out this resolution alone unless you join in it with me, as I now invite you to do. I know that your support will be un-faillingly given. God help me to make good my vow and God bless all of you who are willing to share in it." After her accession she declared, "I pray that God will help me to discharge worthily this heavy task that has been laid upon me so early in my life."

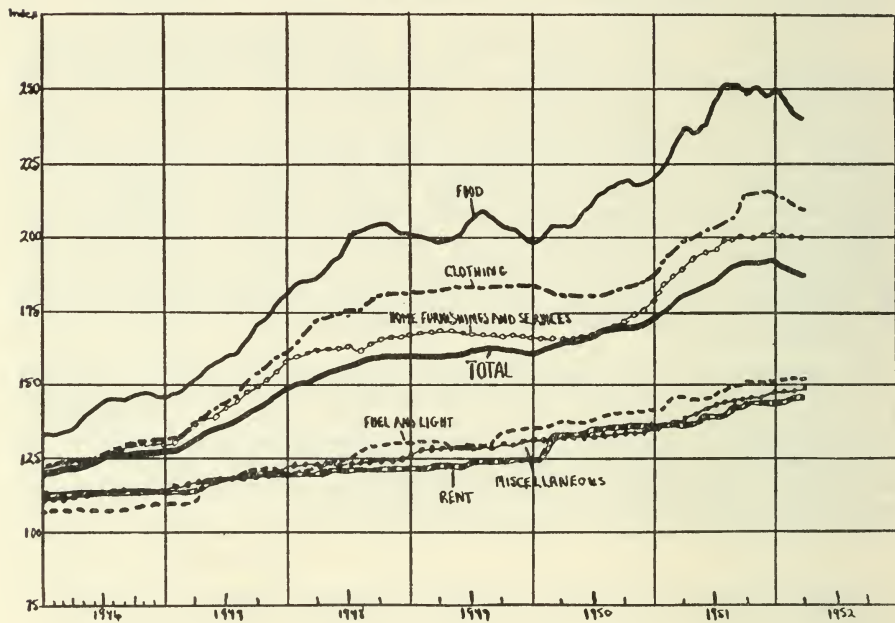
The people of the British Commonwealth look forward to another Elizabethan era of achievement. Lady Tweedsmuir expressed the sentiment of the Queen's subjects when she said, "There is magic in the name ELIZABETH. Our young Queen has already proved herself a peerless ambassadress, drawing closer to us the nations that make up our Commonwealth, and strengthening our ties with the United States. This new Elizabethan age may yet produce the finest in our great history."

COST OF LIVING IN CANADA FROM JANUARY 1914 TO 1948

(Base 1935-39=100)



COST OF LIVING IN CANADA FROM JANUARY 1946



EVENTS ON THE CANADIAN SCENE

Canada's Cost-of-Living Index

The Canadian cost-of-living index measures the change in the cost of a fixed standard of living. The standard originally chosen was that of an average urban wage-earner's family in the years 1937 to 1938. It is true that living standards, particularly in that group, have changed materially since the index was made up.

The important point to remember is that the index measures changing **costs** of living and not changing **standards** of living. It is an index of price movements and not of changes in total family expenditures. This may be the cause of some of the misunderstanding, for Canadians as a whole have increased their standard of living since the beginning of World War II and it is easy to confuse the greater cost of a higher standard of living with an increase in the prices of goods and services in a fixed family budget.

Further, the index measures only average changes for cities and towns across the country. Certainly the cost of living for some families has, because of their particular circumstances, risen more sharply than the index, but against this the cost for other families has risen less sharply. It is true, too, that living costs in some cities fluctuate differently from those in other centers, but the indexes prepared by the Bureau of Statistics for eight major Canadian cities show that the inter-city differences are relatively small.

The Canadian cost-of-living index has been based on the assumption that average prices during 1935-1939 equal 100. On the basis of that calculation the index reached 187.6 points by July 1, 1951. This means that the Canadian dollar was worth only 53 cents on July 1, 1951, as compared with 1939. The index rose steadily during 1951, gaining about 20 points in all. It reached an all-time high of 191.5 by January 1, 1952. By February 1, 1952, it had dropped to 190.8—seven-tenths of a point. The index continued to decline until it was 186.7 on May 1, then it rose again by three-fifths of a point to 187.3 on June 1, and to 188 on July 1.

Sometime during 1952 Canada will get a new cost-of-living index. It will be known as the Consumer Price Index. It will not be based on a pre-war standard of living or on pre-war prices. The year 1949 will be used as the base period, that is, prices during 1949 will equal 100 points. More items will be considered as normal necessities in the Canadian home. The present index is based on 160 items; the new one will be based on 225 items. The cost of food is given a "weight" of 31 per cent in the present index; it will be given 32 per cent in the new one. The new index will thus give a more accurate picture of the cost of living on the basis of Canada's higher standard of living.

Redistribution of Federal Constituencies

The Canadian House of Commons, on July 3, gave final reading to a bill to redistribute representation in the Commons. The redistribution is based on the 1951 census. In all three seats were added, making the new total 265. In addition, the boundaries of 125 constituencies were revised. This means that some of the former constituencies were eliminated altogether and others had parts detached or added to them. Some provinces lost seats; others gained.

The table below shows the new distribution as compared with the present. The population figures are in round numbers.

	POPULATION 1941	PRESENT MEMBERSHIP	POPULATION 1951	NEW MEMBERSHIP
Newfoundland	322,000	7	357,000	7
Prince Edward Island	95,000	4	97,000	4
Nova Scotia	578,000	13	638,000	12
New Brunswick	457,000	10	512,000	10
Quebec	3,332,000	73	4,010,000	75
Ontario	3,787,000	83	4,562,000	85
Manitoba	729,000	16	772,000	14
Saskatchewan	896,000	20	829,000	17
Alberta	796,000	17	936,000	17
British Columbia	818,000	18	1,153,000	22
N.W.T.	17,000	1	24,000	2
Total	11,800,000	262	13,900,000	265

Alberta Redistribution

The representation in the Alberta Legislature has been increased by four members. Edmonton will have seven members instead of five as formerly; Calgary will have six instead of five. In addition, a new constituency of Bonnyville has been formed.

THE GREAT LAKES-ST. LAWRENCE WATERWAY AND POWER PROJECT

The Present Inland Waterway System

The Great Lakes-St. Lawrence System, extending from the Strait of Belle Isle inland to Fort William, covers a distance of 2,225 miles. From the Atlantic coast it reaches into the heart of Canada to a point nearly half way between Cape Breton and the Pacific ocean.

This water highway has played a prominent part in the exploration and settlement of Canada. Its potentialities have been developed through the centuries until at present the route is navigable over most of its length for large sized vessels. From the mouth of the Gulf of St. Lawrence there is no serious obstacle to navigation for the 1,000 miles to Montreal. Upstream from Montreal for the next 115 miles navigation is limited by the shallower canals along the north shore of the river.

Through the Thousand Islands Section, the Welland Canal, the connecting channels between Lake Erie and Lake Huron, and between Lake Huron and Lake Superior, there is a channel depth of 25 feet capable of being dredged to 27 feet. A continuous 27 foot navigation route throughout the entire Great Lakes-St. Lawrence System, which would allow the passage of large sized vessels along the whole route, would require the completion of 40 miles of canals, with seven locks and eight movable bridges in the all-Canadian and International Rapids sections, and channel dredging in some sections from the Thousand Islands to the Head of the Lakes.

The Importance of the St. Lawrence Seaway

The St. Lawrence and the Great Lakes are an important factor in the transportation system of Canada and the United States. Some of the largest cities in Canada and the United States are served by this water route. Near the shores of Lakes Erie and Superior are the coal and iron fields of the United States. Chicago on Lake Michigan is the second city in North America and one of the busiest distribution points in the United States. Detroit is the center of the automobile industry on this continent. On the Canadian side there are the great industrial centers of Quebec, Montreal, Toronto, Hamilton, Windsor, Kingston and Sarnia. The necessity of an efficient, low-cost transportation system in a region of such intense industrial activity and bountiful natural resources is readily understandable.

Development of Hydro-Electric Power

From Lake Superior to the Atlantic ocean there is a total drop of more than 600 feet. Lake Superior pours an average volume of 71,000 cubic feet per second into Lake Huron, and the volume of overflow increases through the length of the system until at Lachine, on the outskirts of Montreal, there is an average flow of 262,000 cubic feet per second. If all power developments which now appear practicable were completed, the system could produce about 8,000,000 horsepower of hydro-electric energy for use in Canada and the United States. Only a little more than one-third of the potential hydro-electric power has been developed.

International Negotiations

Although Canada has developed improved navigation channels on the Canadian side of the system (the Welland Canal which bypasses the Niagara Falls is capable of handling the largest ocean going ship that is likely to use this waterway), the completion of the project for the full development of the system is essentially a joint responsibility of Canada and the United States. Negotiations began back in 1895 when a Commission of Inquiry was set up by the two countries. Studies and inquiries led to the signing in 1932 of the St. Lawrence Deep Waterway Treaty. The Treaty proposals were turned down by the American senate. A further agreement was reached in 1941, the Great Lakes-St. Lawrence Basin Agreement.

The 1941 Agreement

This Agreement provides for:

- (1) The construction of the remaining links in the 27-foot waterway from the head of the Great Lakes to Montreal.
- (2) A combined power development scheme.
- (3) The preservation of the scenic value of the Niagara Falls.
- (4) The use of waters which may be diverted into the Great Lakes system for power purposes.

This Agreement has not received the approval either of the Canadian parliament or the United States congress.

The project would be a gigantic undertaking, the cost of which was estimated in 1941 to be nearly \$600,000,000. Canada's share of this cost was estimated at \$264,003,000. The 1952 estimate would probably exceed one billion dollars. The work involves miles of dredging and excavating and the building of dykes, side canals, locks, docks, bridges, roads and railways.

New York-Ontario Proposal for Power Development

To speed up the development of power in the International Rapids Section the governments of the province of Ontario and New York State offered to undertake this project at their own expense. The United States government has rejected the offer of New York State and the Canadian government has not yet made a final ruling on the offer of the Ontario government.

Opposition to the Project

From various quarters arguments are advanced opposing this huge project and government expenditure. It is pointed out that we cannot be certain of any great increase in the use of the waterway or that ocean going vessels are interested in or suited to a long fresh water haul. The railways see the project as serious competition and, naturally, are not anxious to lose any of their business. The short season in which the waterway is ice free is also cited in its disfavor. Some are convinced that any economy that is achieved by eliminating the transfer of cargo to smaller ships may be offset by the tolls charged by the government to repay its heavy investment.

Arguments in Support of the Project

Those who support the Waterway and power project contend that this greatly improved transportation would increase the flow of goods in and beyond the area and that cheaper transportation would result from the passage of larger ships up the Great Lakes. Industrially, the joint development of power and navigation would encourage expansion and development in the area, and, indirectly, throughout a larger part of Canada and the United States. It is possible, too, that iron ore mined in the recently discovered Quebec-Labrador region might be shipped by this route to Cleveland and other Great Lake ports.

Mr. Dean Acheson speaking for the United States government supported the project in these words:

"The construction of the St. Lawrence Seaway and the development of the power potential of the International Rapids section of the St. Lawrence River are both vitally important to the economy and defence of the United States . . . Canada, like the United States, has a vast midcontinent area, which needs to be connected with European markets at reduced cost. Canada, like the United States, has an eastern area which is deficient in low-cost power and in which the deficiency is hindering the growth of industry. In Canada lies iron ore which needs to be transported to the steel mills of the United States. The building of the seaway and the development of power are as essential to the economy and defence of Canada as they are to the economy and defence of the United States. And, because those measures which make Canada more prosperous and better

able to defend itself add also to the prosperity and security of the United States, so the proposal now under consideration becomes doubly important to the United States.

"Since, therefore, the construction of the seaway and of the power project are of equal importance to Canada and to the United States, and since neither project can be constructed without the joint action of both countries, our action on this measure cannot fail to have an immediate effect on the international relations between the two countries. If we adopt the resolution, Canada and the United States can go forward together in this joint venture for their mutual benefit, and our already happy relations will be made happier; if we refuse to co-operate, there will be disappointment and justifiable criticism on both sides of the border."

This year the Canadian government indicated that unless the 1941 agreement is approved by Congress in 1952, Canada will build the seaway alone. In order to carry out such a plan, some of the canals originally planned for the American side of the river would have to be constructed on the Canadian side.

THE UNITED STATES ELECTS A PRESIDENT

In the United States, 1952 is the year of the presidential election. It will be held on Tuesday, November 4. Many people are wondering whether the Democratic Party can win again. Democratic Presidents have been in office continuously since 1932, but this year the Republican Party is making a determined bid for victory in the election. General Dwight Eisenhower has recently entered the presidential election race on behalf of the Republicans. President Truman has decided not to run for the presidency again; the Democrats, therefore, had to choose another candidate.

Choosing Party Candidates

The candidate for each party is chosen at a national nominating convention in July. Delegates are sent from all states and territories. The delegates are chosen by either the "convention method" or by the "primary elections method." The "convention method" is used in about 32 states and territories. Members of each party in local areas meet to select delegates for a "state convention." At each party's "state convention" delegates for the national convention are chosen.

About 16 states use the "primary elections" method. By this method each party asks its members to vote for delegates to the national convention. Altogether about 1,200 delegates are sent to the national convention by each party. The leader of each state delegation announces the choice of his group at the national convention. The man who has a majority of votes becomes candidate for President. Candidates for Vice-President are chosen in the same manner. At the recent conventions in July General Eisenhower was chosen as Republican candidate and Governor Adlai Stevenson was selected by the Democrats as their nominee in the current presidential race.

Electing the President

When the people of the United States go to the polls in November, they do not vote for a President directly. They cast their ballots for a number of electors, who as a body are known as the College of Electors. The Constitution of the United States sets forth the procedure as follows:

"The executive power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office for a term of four years, and together with the Vice-President, chosen for the same term, be elected as follows:

"Each State shall appoint, in such a manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of Electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector.

"The Electors shall meet in their respective States and vote by ballot for President and Vice-President, one of whom, at least, shall not be an inhabitant of the same State with themselves; they shall name in their ballots the person voted for as President, and in distinct ballots the person voted for as Vice-President, and they shall make distinct lists of all persons voted for as President, and of all persons voted for as Vice-President, and of the number of votes for each, which lists they shall sign and certify, and transmit sealed to the seat of the government of the United States, directed to the President of the Senate. The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be

counted. The person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be the President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have such a majority, then from the persons having the highest numbers not exceeding three on the list of those voted for as President, the House of Representatives shall choose immediately, by ballot, the President. But in choosing the President the votes shall be taken by States, the representation from each State having one vote; a quorum for this purpose shall consist of a member or members from two-thirds of the States, and a majority of all the States shall be necessary to a choice. And if the House of Representatives shall not choose a President, whenever the right of choice shall devolve upon them, before the fourth day of March next following, then the Vice-President shall act as President, as in the case of the death or other constitutional disability of the President. The person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be the majority of the whole number of Electors appointed; and if no person have a majority, then from the two highest numbers on the list the Senate shall choose the Vice-President; a quorum for the purpose shall consist of two-thirds of the whole number of Senators, and a majority of the whole number shall be necessary to a choice. But no person constitutionally ineligible to the office of President shall be eligible to that of Vice-President of the United States.*

The Congress may determine the time of choosing of the Electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes; which day shall be the same throughout the United States."

The Constitution of the United States thus provides that the members of the Electoral College be appointed by the several state legislatures; the number to be appointed by each state is equal to the total number of Senators and Representatives allotted to each state. It is expected that in this manner the nation's ablest men would be appointed to choose the President and the Vice-President. They would meet at the various state capitals and deliberate about the best choice for each office; then they would vote independently. Votes were to be counted at the national capital and the winners declared. It should be noted that no mention of "party" is made in the above quotation from the Constitution.

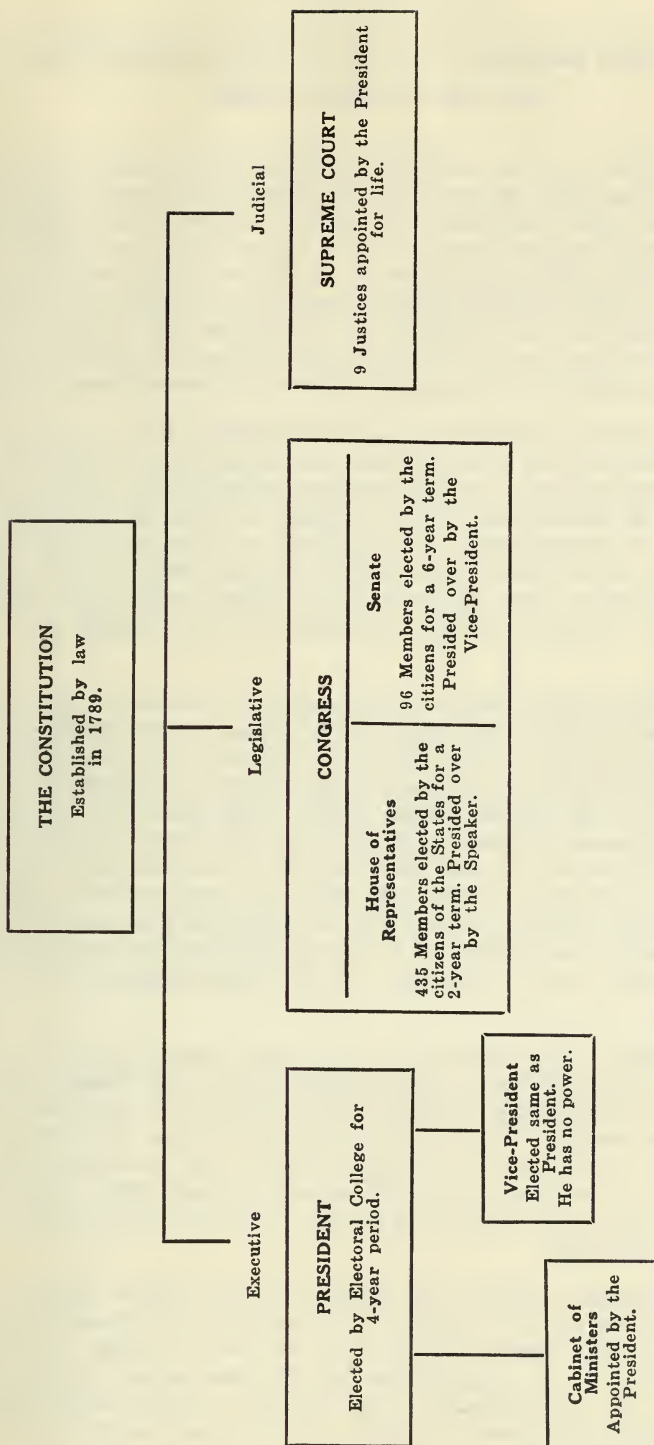
The method of choosing a President and a Vice-President as set forth by the Constitution has become out-of-date. Now each party seeks to get a majority of electors who are pledged to support its candidates. Each party's candidates are listed on the ballot. Below the names of the candidates are listed the names of the electors who support them. The voters cast their ballots for the electors who are pledged to support the candidates of the party which they favor.

The electors who receive the most votes in November meet in the capital of each state on the first Monday after the second Wednesday in December (December 15, this year). There they cast their votes for the candidates they have agreed to support. The balloting by the electoral college is really only a formality. In theory each elector votes independently for the man he thinks is most suitable, but in practice he is only a registrant who registers the previously pronounced verdict of the people. It is an unwritten law that each elector must vote for the candidate he has promised to support. No elector has voted independently for over a hundred years.

Election results are forwarded from each state capital to the President of the Senate (who is the Vice-President of the United States) at the national capital. There, on January 6, the electoral votes are counted before a joint session of Congress. The people, of course, have known the results since November.

* The third paragraph in the quotation from the Constitution above is not original. It is Amendment 12 which was made part of the Constitution in 1804. It replaces the original paragraph.

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES, 1952



PRESENT STANDINGS

President	Mr. H. Truman	Democrat.
SenateMr. H. Truman	Democrat.
House of RepresentativesDemocrats 48	Republicans 46, Dem.-Lib. 1, Vacant 1.
SpeakerDemocrats 228	Republicans 205, Dem.-Lib. 1, Independent 1.
Mr. S. Rayburn	Democrat.

THE MAIN BRANCHES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES

The President is the Commander-in-Chief of the United States Army and Navy and the Chief Executive of the federal government. He is elected for a four-year term; this makes for stability. His duties are comparable to those of both the Governor-General and the Prime Minister of Canada. Unlike the Canadian Prime Minister, however, he is not necessarily the leader of the majority party. In the 1946 Congressional elections, for example, the Republicans gained a majority, yet the President was a Democrat. The President remains in office until the four years of his term have expired. In Canada, the Prime Minister and his Cabinet must resign if a motion of non-confidence is passed.

The President is assisted by the Vice-President, who is elected at the same time. The members of the Cabinet are chosen by the President. Each member is at the head of one of the Executive departments of the government. These include the departments of the Secretary of State, the Secretary of the Treasury, the Attorney-General, the Secretary of Commerce, the Secretary of the Interior, the Secretary of Agriculture, the Secretary of Labor, and the Secretary of Defence. The members of the Cabinet hold office during the pleasure of the President, usually continuing in office through the term of his presidency.

The United States Congress is the Legislative authority. Like Canada's Parliament, the Congress of the United States consists of two houses—an upper House, the Senate, and a lower House, the House of Representatives. The members of both Houses are elected by the people; in Canada the Senators are appointed. In the United States Senate, each state has two Senators, whether its population is small or great; but in the House of Representatives the number of members for each state depends on the size of its population. At present, for example, Nevada has only one Representative, while New York has 45. The members of the House of Representatives are elected every two years. Senators hold office for six years; one-third are elected every two years. Today there are 96 Senators and 435 Representatives in the United States.

All federal laws, which apply to the whole country, have to be passed by Congress. All treaties have to be confirmed by both Houses. The most important power which the constitution gives Congress is the power to levy taxes and to borrow money. This gives Congress the means to meet its other responsibilities. It has power to regulate foreign and inter-state commerce, to issue money, to maintain defence forces and to declare war. The President has power to veto a bill, but his veto may be over-ridden if the both houses of Congress re-pass the bill.

The President chooses the Supreme Court Judges subject to the approval of the Senate. The Supreme Court of the United States may, among other things, decide whether any Act of Congress is within Congressional power as defined by the Constitution and its amendments. It has original jurisdiction in all cases affecting public ministers, consuls, and ambassadors; also in cases where the State is a party. In many other cases it has appellate jurisdiction.

H 69 A33 NO-29 1952
CLASSROOM BULLETIN ON SOCIAL
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